

# THE SCHOOL REVIEW

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## Educational News and Editorial Comment

### THE FEDERAL BOARD FOR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

In the February *School Review* the statement was made in an editorial on the Smith-Towner Bill that "the Federal Board for Vocational Education served notice that it would oppose any bill that gave the department of education any share in its work." This statement elicited from L. S. Hawkins, chief of the Division for Vocational Education, a letter inquiring as to the ground for this statement. The letter of inquiry contained the statement that the Federal Board for Vocational Education has never taken any action on this matter and ought not, therefore, to be repre-

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sented as opposing the bill. The reply of the editors to this letter brought forth the following telegram and a further letter from the chief of the Division for Vocational Education which reiterated the statement that the Federal Board had never taken any action on the matter:

Solely to prevent your misunderstanding or misrepresenting me, I send you this wire regarding my attitude and public statements regarding the bill creating a federal department of education. These statements are matters of record and can readily be furnished you if you want the real facts. Federal Board has never taken any action. My statements have been made on my own personal responsibility. Perhaps more earnestly than you, I believe federal aid for general education to be necessary, just, inevitable. Because I believe that a board representing every social interest should disburse and therefore establish under the law minimum standards rather than a political secretary, I have favored a board. Because I believe all federal activities in education, including grants to states, should be placed under one agency or board with an executive officer responsible to it, I favor one board and the placing under it of the educational work of present agencies. Such a board would at one stroke abolish duplication of agencies as nothing else could. Have never worked against the N. E. A. bill or asked anybody to vote against it. Have spoken repeatedly in favor of federal grants for general education. My attitude as given here has been expressed in answer to inquiries and I have exercised my right as an individual to free speech. There are many persons who hold the same view whose hearty support would be won by a measure merging under one board government grants to schools, at least those of elementary or secondary grade. My confidence in your sense of fair play promises you will at least not misrepresent me knowingly.

(Signed) C. A. PROSSER

It seems apparent from this correspondence that the question of the relation of vocational education to general education has never been completely answered in the minds of those who are most intimately concerned with the situation in Washington. At all events, it is the belief of the present writer that the correspondence makes more evident than it has ever been before the necessity of coming to some definite conclusion on this subject before the Smith-Towner Bill is acted upon by Congress.

That the issue is not clearly before the country is attested by the following facts: The Society of College Teachers of Education voted, after hearing a discussion on the Smith-Towner Bill, to reaffirm their approval of the bill. The next day at the regular business session this same organization of college teachers adopted unanimously a resolution to the effect that the society approves the principle that whenever a department of education is organized it shall include the Federal Board for Vocational Education.

It cannot be too often pointed out that the only type of school system in the United States which is worth building up is one which is sufficiently comprehensive to include both vocational and general education.

#### THE DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE

The meeting of the Department of Superintendence at Cleveland was the largest and, in many respects, the most important meeting of an educational type that the country has seen in years. The necessity of putting this great organization beyond the reach of anyone who attempts to use its offices for unprofessional ends was clearly recognized at the business meeting. An entirely new system of electing the president was inaugurated, and through a committee which is to report next year a general plan will ultimately be adopted providing for participation by all of the members of the department in the election of officers. In the meantime, Commissioner Kendall of New Jersey was elected for the coming year, demonstrating very clearly the fact that the department recognizes the necessity of genuine leadership in the management of its activities.

There were three general subjects which were constructively discussed at a number of the meetings. In the first place, the rights of teachers were considered by superintendents and by a number of speakers on the programs in a way that makes it clear that teachers are to receive in the future more recognition in school organization than they have received in the past. A committee of the National Council of Education reported on participation by teachers in the making of the curriculum. A number of reports were rendered showing how teachers' councils have been organized and made use of in developing better school systems. Several of the discussions pointed out that teachers require this sort of recognition as well as increased salaries if they are to be retained in the profession.

The second topic most commonly discussed was health education. It was reported that some sixty speakers on the various programs made this a major topic of treatment.

Finally, Americanization in its different aspects was advocated for pupils in all grades of schools as well as for adult foreigners.

One of the most important gatherings from the point of view of the secondary schools of the country was the meeting of the National Association of Secondary School Principals. There came together at the meetings of this association somewhat more than three hundred of the leading secondary-school principals of the country. Problems of supervision and curriculum organization were discussed, and at the banquet on Monday evening, February 23, reports were heard on the program for introducing civics material into the high-school curriculum. The two papers presented at the banquet are published in this issue of the *School Review*.

The next meeting of the Department of Superintendence is to be held at Washington, D. C.

#### DARTMOUTH COLLEGE ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS

Dartmouth College has taken a step in the direction of eliminating specific requirements for admission to college in the case of exceptionally strong students. With the multiplication of public high schools and with the development of courses of study in different parts of the country which are widely different in their content, it has become increasingly difficult for any college to lay down specified entrance requirements. For example, the kind of ancient history taught in one high school will hardly tally with the type that is given in another high school. Furthermore, the question arises in a good many quarters whether ancient history should be given at all. What is true of this one subject is true in a measure of other subjects in the curriculum.

Dartmouth has now taken the position that any student of high-grade ability who has had a secondary course in an accredited institution can undoubtedly carry on college work whether he has pursued this or that specific line of study or not. A full statement of the change in entrance requirements is as follows:

It is recognized that there is a constant demand upon the American college to improve the intellectual quality of its accomplishment, and, furthermore, it is recognized that responsibility for meeting it cannot fairly be transferred to the already heavy burden which rests upon secondary or preparatory schools of the country. This responsibility logically rests upon the college, and it should be met through securing increased effectiveness in college work. This responsibility Dartmouth stands ready to assume.



The evidence in hand indicates that, in the great majority of cases, the man who shows marked ability in his school work preparatory to college demonstrates like ability in his college work. It is to such men in approved schools that Dartmouth would offer a simplified procedure for qualifying for entrance to the college. It is to this group, further, that Dartmouth would definitely assure admission under circumstances in which, of necessity, the college can admit but a decreasing proportion of those who apply for enrolment in the student body.

The policy does not permit the graduation of a man from college lacking any of the requirements before held to in the combination of preparatory school work and college course, but it does offer to the qualified men who offer the required quantity of work that the exact prerequisites which may be lacking will be compensated for in the opportunity of the undergraduate work. In other words, the college will assume responsibility for the quantity and scope of the candidate's preparatory work so long as the quality of this work is guaranteed:

1. In that the man shall come from a school of properly certified grade
2. In that he shall have qualified for graduation from that school
3. In that he shall have consistently ranked in the first quarter of his class

For men of such proved ability at the time of entrance only the minimum of specific prerequisites is to be required out of the somewhat extensive and rigid list hitherto adhered to without exception in the cases of any.

The vote of the faculty reads as follows:

Beginning with the year 1921-22 any student from an approved school, graduating with an average in scholarship for the four years of his school course which places him in the first quarter of his class, and offering three units of English and two and one-half units of mathematics among his list of subjects, may be admitted without conditions.

This action represents a break in the traditional New England mode of dealing with secondary schools. There can be no doubt at all that other institutions of the same grade as Dartmouth will very shortly follow this example and frankly admit the necessity of dealing with the secondary schools in such a way as to recognize their right to outline the courses for their students. The effort of the colleges in the past to formulate secondary-school curricula has been a source of grievous dissatisfaction on the part of secondary schools, and public education in this country has suffered because of the rigidity of college specifications.

Probably the last of the institutions to join in the movement which Dartmouth has inaugurated will be the women's colleges. They are sufficiently supplied with students at the present time so that all of their tendencies are highly conservative. If there is any way of getting their favorable attention to a reasonable program such as Dartmouth has laid out, the education of young women would be greatly improved.

## REQUEST FOR INFORMATION ON HISTORY

In order to stimulate a wider and more effective use of collateral reading in the teaching of history, the Mississippi Valley Historical Association has appointed a committee on the standardization of library equipment in secondary schools. This committee is making an extensive survey by means of a questionnaire to determine the history books available in high-school libraries, the practice in duplicating titles, the books found most useful by teachers and pupils, the money expended for history books, methods of checking collateral reading, and kindred topics. The committee is eager to secure returns from as many schools as possible. Teachers who are willing to co-operate with the committee can secure copies of the questionnaire by writing to the chairman, Mr. Howard C. Hill, School of Education, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois.

## REORGANIZING THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM OF THE UNITED STATES

The professional schools of the United States have long recognized the disadvantage under which they operate because they receive their students at an age about two years later than do the corresponding schools of Europe. The medical profession especially has in recent years attempted to exert its influence in the direction of a reorganization of schools which shall make possible a better and earlier training of young doctors. The following editorial is quoted from the Record of the School of Education of the University of North Dakota and gives the views of one of the leaders in the medical profession on this matter:

Dr. Charles Mayo of Rochester, Minnesota, advocates the shortening of our educational course, or curriculum, so as to limit elementary education to six years, secondary education to three years, and college education to three years, thus enabling one to receive his B.A. degree at about the age of eighteen. This would allow one aiming at a profession to begin his preparation for it three or four years sooner than at present. He claims that men do not now enter their professional practice soon enough. His suggestion, if carried out, would make the general educational curriculum about what it was fifty or seventy-five years ago. Longfellow and others of his day graduated from college at about the age of eighteen.

This shortening of the educational course is not a new idea; it is a problem with which educational thinkers have often wrestled. President N. M. Butler of Columbia University led a discussion a few years ago in favor of shortening the entire educational course so that the B.A. degree might be secured at about the end of what is now the sophomore year. It did not seem, however, to meet with favor, and in recent years the discussion has been discontinued.

We are inclined to think, however, that the general educational course will and should, in the future, be shortened. At present the criticism and the agitation seem to be coming from outside the profession of teaching. This is rather a hopeful sign. Indeed, most of the constructive criticism on education during the last generation or two has come, not from teachers themselves, but from those outside of the teaching profession.

There is no doubt that in our general educational course as at present constructed there is too much dilly-dallying, too much time spent upon irrelevant and unimportant matters, and that the schools at present exemplify and realize the etymological meaning of the word "school"—a place of leisure. There is at present, in fact, great danger that pupils and students may acquire, during their plastic and academic period, what may properly be termed the "slow habit." There is no doubt that the undue length of the general educational curriculum and the leisurely procedure allowed are the reasons why so many leave school. If the course could be reduced at least two years—meeting Dr. Mayo half way—thousands would go through the schools and graduate where hundreds do now; it would, without doubt, do the greatest good to the greatest number. And then those who feel so inclined and have a real hunger and thirst for knowledge could continue in the graduate school or in research work to their heart's content. Such people really cannot be held back; they are the ones who usually find a way or make one.

No doubt the time will come soon when cities of any size will be forced to establish junior colleges, thus giving an opportunity at home to complete the course necessary for entrance to the professional schools. Then the over-crowded state universities could be relieved of the task of doing this preliminary work for the whole state, thus leaving them free to become real universities. At present many of the larger universities are simply swamped with numbers, due to the large freshman and sophomore classes. They must now furnish the junior-college education which should be provided at home through the co-operation of the state and local boards.

A second quotation from an entirely different source indicates the attitude on the same matter of a former president of one of the great state universities.

Dr. William Watts Folwell, first president of the University of Minnesota, said while he was worrying over the problem of saying much in a short time, he remembered "the conceit of some French wit who said 'an author ought always to compose the index of his book, his secretary should fill in the text of his chapters.'" Upon this hint, he said, he only outlined his views of high schools as people's colleges. His skeletonized remarks follow:

*Preface.* In this treatise there is no reference to vocational, technical or professional education. It has in view only the general liberal education of the citizen. The words "college" and "university" are generally used indiscriminately. Schooling is only a part of education.

SECTION I. Three epochs of schooling:

Primary for the training of children.

Secondary for the instruction of youth.  
Superior for adult specialization.

SEC. II. Epochs not recognized and distinguished in America. Free common school not quite a century old. Free high school hardly more than a half century old. American colleges therefore obliged to carry on a large part of secondary education. Many of them little more than secondary schools, and often very good ones.

SEC. III. Late evolution of proper university work in college. Elective system; abolition of compulsory chapel attendance. Extension of library and laboratory facilities. Graduate schools.

SEC. IV. Results a bad mixture of epochs, methods and discipline. Youth and adults mixed. Too much lecturing, too little book work. Not enough drill work on the youth, too much of it for adults.

SEC. V. First step in reform. Recognition of the secondary epoch as distinct and self-sufficient. The high school more than a feeder for colleges. End of schooling under tutors and governors with roll-calls and marking systems.

SEC. VI. Practical reform. Addition of two years to high-school work and gradual relegation of first two years of college work to high schools. Process already begun. Junior colleges in Minnesota, in Missouri. Example of Stanley Hall in Minneapolis.

SEC. VII. Prime advantage to high school—When permitted to do whole work of secondary epoch instead of half of it. The high school now quits. It does not end. Increased dignity and consideration would justify the title of People's Colleges.

SEC. VIII. Incidental advantages to develop high schools:

Continuation of proper school instruction.

Continuation of school discipline.

Elimination of distractions in the way of fraternities, dances, games, etc.

Simplification of the co-education question.

SEC. IX. Relation of high school and home. Home life place for youth under instruction. True college education offered to immensely large number of youth. Incalculable economy in saving of expenses of students sent away from home.

SEC. X. Liberation of the university from school keeping.

No classes.

No roll-calls.

No marks.

No prescribed years.

Degrees for merit only.

Candidates apply for examinations when ripe.

The university thus emancipated will rise and shine in her true functions, such as the cultivation of disinterested learning, the guidance of serious men and women preparing for the higher walks of the professions, or engaged in research in the realms of history and science and the publication of the contributions of her scholars and teachers to human knowledge.

## JUNIOR HIGH-SCHOOL CLEARING HOUSE

S. O. Rorem, principal of the East Junior High School, Sioux City, Iowa, has launched an enterprise which will be of interest to teachers and principals of junior high schools and to others who are attempting to keep in touch with the vigorous educational reform which is going on in the upper grades of the elementary school and the first year of the high school. Mr. Rorem proposes to issue eight monthly bulletins in which the facts about junior high schools are summarized and in which questions will be taken up for discussion and answer. He asks for a subscription of \$2.00 a year from all who are interested and promises that the material will be of the most practical type. Mr. Rorem's statement with regard to these bulletins is as follows:

Every subject of the junior high-school curriculum, every point of organization, discipline, and school interest will be dealt with honestly and openly in a search for the best. First issue appears about March 1. The membership fee of \$2.00 entitles you to representation in discussions, to all publications, and to all service undertaken by the Junior High Clearing House until January 1, 1921. It is for every superintendent, principal, and teacher in any extent interested in the junior high or intermediate schools. Send your check for \$2.00 now if you desire to multiply its valuable interests or receive its benefits. Address: Junior High Clearing House, 1520 Morningside Avenue, Sioux City, Iowa.

## NEWS ITEMS FROM SECONDARY SCHOOLS

## GROUPING PUPILS BY INTELLIGENCE TESTS

*Junior High School, Lawrence, Kansas.*—Otis Scale given to 397 junior high-school pupils, and pupils grouped in classes according to their intelligence quotients. The teacher's estimate at times played some part in the classification. With some exceptions it looks as if there might be a close correlation between the teacher's estimate and intelligence quotients. A study of this problem is being made at the present time.

Otis classification of intelligence quotients is as follows:

- Above 140 near genius
- 120-140 very superior intelligence
- 110-120 superior intelligence
- 90-110 normal
- 80-90 dull
- 70-80 borderline
- Below 70 feeble-minded

	Cases
Distribution of intelligence quotients.....	397
Above 140—12.5 per cent.....	49
120-140—18.7 per cent.....	74
110-120—10.8 per cent.....	43
90-110—27.2 per cent.....	108
80-90—16.8 per cent.....	67
70-80—7.8 per cent.....	31
Below 70—6.3 per cent.....	25
	Per cent
Percentage of cases above normal.....	42.0
Percentage of cases normal.....	27.2
Percentage of cases above normal and normal.....	69.2
Percentage of cases below normal.....	31.0

The high percentage of feeble-mindedness is due to the large number of retarded negroes. Fifty-seven negroes are enrolled and seventeen of this number, or 29.8 per cent, are feeble-minded according to the Otis Scale. Eight out of 340 white pupils are feeble-minded, or 2.3 per cent. In our junior high school we have three rather distinct groups of pupils: the normal and accelerate group, the members of which will very probably continue their education beyond junior and senior high schools; the second group, a large percentage in the "dull" classification, which has made somewhat normal progress through the elementary school and will very probably stop school before they reach the senior high; the third group of mature pupils who are retarded three and four years and have not completed the elementary school, but who have been placed in junior high school and allowed to pursue subjects which their abilities and interests may permit. This accounts for the rather large percentage of probable and definite feeble-mindedness. With these three groups in junior high school, classification by the Otis Scale simplifies matters of discipline, subject-matter, and methods.

Two years comprise our junior high-school course. In the first half of the first year we have 91 pupils classified into three groups according to the intelligence quotients as follows:

Class 1.....	112-140 and above.....	33 pupils
Class 2.....	87-110.....	32 pupils
Class 3.....	below 70-80.....	26 pupils

In the second half of the first year we have 106 pupils. This group is divided into four classes according to the intelligence quotients as follows:



Class 1.....	120-140 and above.....	29 pupils
Class 2.....	100-120.....	30 pupils
Class 3.....	80-100.....	27 pupils
Class 4.....	below 70-80.....	20 pupils

In the first half of the second year we have 84 pupils. This group is divided into three classes according to the intelligence quotients as follows:

Class 1.....	120-140.....	26 pupils
Class 2.....	90-120.....	29 pupils
Class 3.....	below 70-85.....	29 pupils

In the second half of the second year we have 116 pupils classified according to the intelligence quotients as follows:

Class 1.....	120-140 and above.....	29 pupils
Class 2.....	107-120.....	29 pupils
Class 3.....	88-105.....	31 pupils
Class 4.....	below 70-80.....	27 pupils

The point of division between any two groups is arbitrary and is determined largely by the size of the group. There will naturally be some overlapping between the groups. The writer feels that the distinguishing feature of the Otis Scale is in classifying the normal and lower end of intelligence, the dull, border line, and feeble-minded.

The grouping must be flexible. Wherever a pupil does a better piece of work than the standard of his group he is placed in a higher group, and likewise when a pupil fails to do the work of his group he is placed in a lower division.

W. D. ARMENTROUT

*Washington Junior High School, Rochester, New York.*—In former years incoming classes assigned to groups according to ratings of contributing schools. In 1919, seventh-grade children all given Otis Intelligence Tests. Papers ranked in order of excellence, and from the top of the list thirty-seven pupils chosen for section one, thirty-seven for section two, and so forward to section nine. Two lowest groups placed in "special opportunity" classes. Information as to the relative position of the groups guarded from both teachers and pupils.

The plan of grouping by objective tests apparently superior to grouping by elementary-school grades. At the close of the first

ten weeks' work scholarship ratings were compared for the nine groups. Ninety-one per cent of the children in the two high groups were above the median of the class, 71 per cent of the intermediate groups were above the class median, while only 39 per cent of the two low groups were above the class median. Where the first ten weeks' work showed that a striking mistake had been made by the Otis tests, for example, a failure pupil in a high group, transfers were made; from a total of 343 pupils only sixteen transfers were found necessary.

But the plan of objective tests for efficient grouping finds still other supporting evidence. In the first semester 45 pupils were recommended by contributing schools for study-coach sections, called "opportunity" classes. Of these, the Otis scores placed only 18 in the low groups. At the close of the first quarter 5 of the remaining 27 were transferred, leaving as slow pupils only 23 out of the 45 originally recommended as such. Fifty per cent of pupils sent up as slow were shown by the tests and by experience to deserve place in intermediate classes and were able to carry themselves successfully in the regular program. At the other extreme, 54 pupils given full promotion by elementary schools were assigned through the tests to lowest groups. Of these only 5 were found worthy of promotion after ten weeks' trial; 49 were quite properly placed in study-coach classes.

JAMES M. GLASS

## News Items from the School of Education of the University of Chicago

### INSTRUCTORS AND COURSES FOR THE SUMMER QUARTER

Frequent inquiries are being received concerning instructors who will be in residence during the Summer Quarter and the courses which will be given. Opportunity is taken at this time to supply the readers of the *School Review* with information on these points. The following list of instructors and courses is limited wholly to the Department of Education and does not include the instructors or courses in the special-methods departments. A bulletin giving detailed descriptions of all courses will be sent on request.

Dr. Leonard P. Ayres, director of the Division of Education, Russell Sage Foundation, will give introductory and advanced courses in Statistical Methods Applied to Educational Problems.

S. A. Courtis, director of Educational Research, Public Schools, Detroit, Michigan, will give two courses relating to school tests and measurements: the Use of Tests in Improving Instruction, and Principles and Technique of Test and Scale Construction.

Dr. F. N. Freeman will give courses in Mental Tests and Experimental Education. He will be assisted in the latter courses by Guy T. Buswell, assistant professor of Education, Hamline University, St. Paul, Minnesota.

Dr. Carter Alexander, assistant state superintendent of Public Instruction for Wisconsin will give courses on Financial Organization and Administration and on Problems of Normal-School Organization and Administration.

Professor Henry C. Morrison, superintendent of the Laboratory Schools, University of Chicago, will give an advanced course on Public School Finance and a course on the General Technique of Instruction in Secondary Schools.

Dr. Charles H. Judd will give courses in the Psychology of Elementary Education, the Psychology of Secondary Education, and Advanced Educational Psychology.

Superintendent John W. Withers, St. Louis, Missouri, will give courses on the Teaching Staff and on the Psychology of Elementary School Subjects.

Dean William S. Gray will give courses on the Supervision of Reading, the Criticism and Supervision of Instruction in Elementary Schools, and the Use of Tests in Improving Instruction.

C. O. Davis, professor of Education, University of Michigan, and L. V. Koos, professor of Secondary Education, University of Minnesota, will give courses on the Junior High School and on the Administration and Supervision of High Schools.

W. P. Burris, professor of Education and Dean of the College for Teachers, University of Cincinnati, will give courses on the Administration and Supervision of Elementary Schools and on the History of Modern Elementary Education.

President J. A. Burruss, Virginia Polytechnic Institute, will give courses on Rural Education.

Assistant Professor Emery T. Filbey will give courses on Industrial Education, Industrial Organization and Management, and Vocational Guidance. He will be assisted by Harry T. Fultz.

Dr. Clara Schmitt, Child Study Department, Chicago Public Schools, will give courses relating to the School Treatment of Retarded and Mentally Defective Children.

John E. Stout, professor of Educational Administration, Northwestern University, will give courses on the School Population and on Methods of Teaching in High Schools.

Dr. J. F. Bobbitt will give the Curriculum and Administrative and Supervisory Functions of Educational Administration.

Dr. Nathaniel Butler will give courses on Foreign School Systems, and Methods of Teaching in High Schools.

Dr. F. S. Breed will give courses on Class Organization and on Management and Testing (a) in Elementary Schools and (b) in Secondary Schools.

Dr. M. W. Jernegan will give Methods of Historical Research.

W. S. Guiler, professor of Education, Miami University, will give the following courses: Introduction to the Scientific Study of Education, Methods of Teaching in High Schools, and History of Modern Secondary Education.

Professor S. Chester Parker will give an advanced course on the Methods of Teaching in High Schools and a course on the Methods of Teaching in Elementary Schools.

## TENTATIVE REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE OF THE AMERICAN SOCIOLOGICAL SOCIETY ON THE TEACHING OF SOCIOLOGY IN THE GRADE AND HIGH SCHOOLS OF AMERICA<sup>1</sup>

At the 1918 meeting of the American Sociological Society, a committee was appointed to ascertain the present status of the teaching of sociology in the grade and high schools of America and to make recommendations for the extension of such teaching. That committee consisted of the following sociologists: A. J. Todd of the University of Minnesota, C. A. Ellwood of the University of Missouri, Ross L. Finney of the University of Minnesota, Cecil C. North of Ohio State University, John Phelan of the Massachusetts Agricultural College, Walter R. Smith of the University of Kansas, and E. S. Bogardus of the University of Southern California. The following is the tentative report of the committee presented at the 1919 meeting of the society. In order to make this report available for educators as well as sociologists, it is hereby offered through the columns of the *School Review*.

### I. THE AIM OF SOCIAL SCIENCE TEACHING IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS

This committee has grown out of a rapidly growing recognition in recent years on the part of sociologists of the social function of distributive scholarship. Nothing is more obvious than that public opinion in the long run controls the policies of democracy. It follows that a confusion of ignorant "isms" in the public mind is poor protection against the danger of a clash between rabid radicalism and extreme conservatism. If the present social crisis is to be successfully negotiated, there must be built up a substantial body of sound, scientific public opinion relative to the social problems that confront us.

Among the determinants of public opinion the schools are of course the most conspicuous. Hence there has recently developed a much fuller recognition of the civic function of education on the part of education leaders. The popular concept of the aim of educa-

<sup>1</sup> Presented by Ross L. Finney, chairman, at the meeting of the American Sociological Society in December, 1919.

tion, particularly of secondary education, is beginning to be modified. The disciplinary ghost is fading, schooling as a badge of aristocratic exclusiveness is falling into disuse, and it is beginning to be discerned that the American high school has been raised up during the last half century in order that it might train a citizenry for adjustment to a complex and problematical social environment. Special teaching of social science is coming to be recognized as necessary to this end. This is a movement to which sociologists and economists may well lend their active, organized support.

## II. THE PRESENT STATUS OF SOCIAL SCIENCE TEACHING IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

This change in the concept of aims is reflected in the rapidly changing status of social science in the curricula. The movement to give it a much larger place is developing quite surprising proportions.

Several studies have been made of the present teaching practice. Theron Freese, A.M., a graduate student in economics and sociology at the University of Southern California, in 1917 made a study of the teaching of sociology in high schools. He summarizes his findings as follows:

Not only are history, civics, and economics being taught with emphasis upon their social aspect, but many secondary schools have introduced courses in elementary sociology or social problems. Though most of these new courses are found in the Central and Western states, many educators in the Eastern and Southern states are heartily in sympathy with the movement. High-school sociology is still largely in the experimental stage, but the favorable results already obtained convince the writer that, unless superficial, ill-advised teaching throws the movement into disrepute, within a few years social problems courses will be common.

Professor H. H. Moore has made a more recent investigation under the auspices of the United States Bureau of Education. He sent out questionnaires to 5,054 high schools, that is, to about one-third of the high schools of the country selected at random. He reports as follows:

Seventy per cent of these 5,054 schools offer courses in current events.

All but 220 schools (4 per cent) teach one or more of the social studies, i.e., civics, economics, sociology, social ethics, and similar subjects. The number of



schools teaching civics is 4,799 (95 per cent of the total replying). Of this number, however, a small majority, 2,404, appear to be teaching the old type of civics which deals primarily with the machinery of governments with little or no reference to the economic and social problems for the solution of which the machinery exists, but it is believed that these are rapidly giving place to texts of the new type.

Of the total replying, 1,824 (36 per cent) teach economics.

What is especially encouraging is that 431 schools report courses in sociology. It is very doubtful, however, whether the subject-matter taught would justify the use of the title "sociology." Only 136 report recognized texts. But to know that as many as 136 schools out of 5,054 are actually engaged in teaching sociology indicates a rapid development of the subject during the last ten years.

The replies show that civics is required in the year for which it is offered by 1,110 out of 1,478 schools.

Economics and sociology are required in only about one-third of the schools in which they are offered, economics in 697 out of 1,769 schools and sociology in 136 out of 431 high schools.

Your committee sent out letters of inquiry to practically all the State Superintendents of Public Instruction. The general impression to be gathered from the replies is about the same as that to be derived from the above reports, except that they reveal a keen, and in some cases an active, interest in the extension of these subjects in high schools.

In elementary schools attempts are being made here and there to give civic instruction. The extent of these attempts your committee does not know. The work in this field at Indianapolis has been described by Arthur W. Dunn, special agent in civic education for the United States Bureau of Education, in *Bulletin No. 17, 1915*. Elementary teachers are making the social approach to other subjects more than high-school teachers are. This is true in the case of geography, history, and especially hygiene.

The growth in favor of the civic aim of secondary education is indirectly reflected in the tendency relative to college entrance requirements. The ideal toward which we are moving seems to be fifteen or sixteen units, only two of which, English, are specified, with very elastic acceptance of modern high-school subjects for the remaining thirteen or fourteen units. A scientific study has recently reduced to charts the well-known fact that in general the farther west one goes the more nearly this ideal is approached. This tendency is to be approved, of course, because it liberates the high schools for the performance of their civic function.

### III. SPECIAL AGENCIES ACTIVELY PROMOTING SOCIAL SCIENCE TEACHING

Numerous agencies are actively advocating the extension of social science teaching. Your committee has a very interesting collection of letters from university professors of secondary education. Without exception they are vigorously promoting the civic and socializing aims of secondary education. They express surprisingly little dissent from the detailed program of studies presently to be set forth in this report.

Perhaps the most significant aspect of this whole movement is the number and prestige of the committees that are working concurrently upon the same problem.

The National Education Association has a Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, of which Clarence D. Kingsley is chairman. Of this commission there is a Subcommittee on Social Studies, of which Thomas Jesse Jones is chairman, and on which the committee of the Sociological Society is now represented. This commission has issued several bulletins, the most important of which are *United States Bureau of Education Bulletin No. 23, 1915* on "The Teaching of Community Civics," and *Bulletin No. 28, 1916*, on "Social Studies in Secondary Education." These bulletins are the chief sources of guidance for school administrators. However, correspondence reveals the fact that the leaders of this commission are developing a fuller appreciation of the possibilities of scientific sociology as a high-school subject than is revealed in these bulletins published several years ago.

There is also a Committee on History and Education for Citizenship in the Schools, a joint committee of the American Historical Association and the National Board of Historic Service in co-operation with the Commission on a National Program for Education of the National Education Association. The personnel of this board is Joseph Schafer, Daniel C. Knowlton, William C. Bagley, Frank S. Bogardus, Julian A. C. Chandler, Guy Stanton Ford, Samuel B. Harding, and Andrew C. McLaughlin. The prestige of this committee consists partly in the fact that it was a committee of the American Historical Association which formulated the program of history and social studies that the public schools have been using for the past fifteen or twenty years. The *Historical Outlook* for November, 1919, contains an article by Professor Joseph

Schafer, chairman of this committee, in which their program of social studies is tentatively set forth.

The National Committee for Teaching Citizenship is a self-constituted committee of which Thomas H. Balliet is chairman, Daniel C. Knowlton, vice-chairman, and Harry H. Moore, secretary. The executive board contains a number of well-known names such as Roscoe L. Ashley, Charles A. Beard, Henry R. Burch, Edward O. Sisson, E. T. Towne, James H. Tufts, and others. The committee is "frankly a propaganda committee," and is "organized to encourage the education of the boys and girls of the United States concerning the origin and development of liberty, co-operation, and democracy; the economic, political, and social problems confronting democracy today; the responsibility of citizens in a democracy and the ends and value of living." The Committee on the Teaching of Citizenship enjoys the co-operation of the Commission of the Bureau of Education.

There is also a Committee of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, of which Professor Charles H. Judd is secretary. He writes: "I think we shall urge some social studies in every year of the junior and senior high school. We shall also go into some detail with regard to the material that can be used for such courses."

One of the most encouraging features of the work of these various committees is their manifest desire to co-operate. The desirability of working out some proposed program of social studies which all can unite in promoting is, of course, obvious.

#### IV. PROPOSED PROGRAM OF SOCIAL STUDIES

After a careful study of the published recommendations of the committees just mentioned and a diligent assembling of expert educational opinion, your committee recommends the following program of social studies.

Grades I to VI: One full round of elementary general and American history, with emphasis on the economic and social sides. This corresponds to the tentative recommendations of the Schafer committee, except that they would confine it to American history. We think the expansion of elementary history twenty years ago to include general history was a great gain because such general history inculcates the point of view of social evolution, and a

cosmopolitan concept of international relations. These are more necessary now than ever.

Grades VII, VIII, and IX: Geography with special emphasis on the social side; American history and government, with some attention to the European background, and emphasis on the economic and social side; and elementary social science or "community civics." This we understand to be in substantial accord with the recommendations of the Schafer committee and the Dunn report for the N. E. A. Commission.

The course in elementary social science (commonly called community civics) should be given in the ninth grade under the six-three-three plan, but under the eight-four plan it should, for obvious reasons, be divided between the eighth and ninth grades, the other half-year in each case being devoted to American history. In content, this course should be a descriptive and evaluating account of the co-operative activities of the social life, not merely local but also general. Individual interdependence should be thoroughly developed as a concept and motivated as an ideal.

Grades X, XI, and XII. For this cycle the N. E. A. Commission recommends:

- X. European history
  - XI. American history
  - XII. Problems of democracy, social, economic, and political
- The Schafer committee recommends:

- X. Modern world history
- [XI. American history from the beginning of the national period
- XII. Social science

It will be seen that these two programs are in substantial agreement, and we approve them with the following recommendations:

The tenth-grade history course should consist of an outline survey of social evolution. It should include an account of prehistoric primitive life, after the manner of Breasted's *Ancient History*. It should emphasize the economic and social sides, trace the development of fundamental ideals and institutions, and reveal the solidarity of modern nations.

The eleventh-grade history course should emphasize the social and economic aspects of American life, should devote much less time than is customary to colonial history, and very much more

than is customary to the period since the Civil War. Incidentally it should familiarize the student with the machinery of our government.

The twelfth-grade course should be general social science, devoted chiefly to sociology and economics. Sociology should precede economics. There should be a definite aim to teach the principles of these sciences in so far as high-school Seniors are capable of understanding them. The approach, however, should be through concrete facts and problems, particularly through social groups with which the pupils are most familiar, such as the neighborhood, the local community, the play gang of adolescents, and the family. With respect to those phases of sociology and economics on which there is general agreement the method should be as definite as in the physical sciences. The mere forensic exchange of ignorant opinion is to be deprecated in favor of the acquisition of copious and accurate knowledge. The aim should be to develop self-reliant thinking, but on a basis of knowledge of, and respect for, exact science in the social field.

#### V. SOCIAL SCIENCE COURSES IN DETAIL

The increasing interest of secondary-school teachers in social science is calling forth numerous suggestions as to the detailed content of the courses for Grades IX and XII. The greatest need is for suitable textbooks. The most available high-school textbooks in sociology that have come to the attention of your committee are: *American Social Problems* by Burch and Patterson (Macmillan), *Social Problems* by Towne (Macmillan), and *Sociology and Modern Social Problems* by Ellwood (American Book Company). For the eighth or ninth grade there are very few textbooks available. *Lessons in Community and National Life, Series B*, by Judd and Marshall (Bureau of Education) is a symposium; *Elementary Social Science* by Leavitt and Brown (Macmillan) is too brief. *Organized Self Government* by Dawson (Holt) and *The New Civics* by Ashley (Macmillan) are sociological civics, but not sociology. The committee knows of several other texts in process of preparation. Publishers are actively searching for manuscripts. It is to be hoped that numerous new texts will shortly appear, written by authors who know not only sociology and economics, but also the psychology and technique of high-school instruction. The struggle for existence

among such texts will undoubtedly eventuate in the survival of the best. Results can probably be secured in no other way.

#### VI. OTHER RECOMMENDATIONS

Your committee offers the following additional recommendations:

1. Most of the other subjects of the high-school curriculum should be definitely correlated with social science. Elementary teachers are in advance of secondary teachers in this respect. To illustrate in the case of literature: the customary approach is historical and the traditional appraisals of literary value are dogmatically enforced. This is unpsychological, with the result that children's interest in literature is often killed instead of stimulated, and the social origin and function of literature is usually undiscerned. There is much good literature dealing with contemporary social phenomena and problems. Such literature appeals to the instinctive interests of most pupils. Such literature constitutes the psychological approach to the classics; the social value of such a study of literature would be immense. The same principle could readily be illustrated in the case of other subjects.

2. The Froebellian principle of social participation should be applied to discipline, organization, and pedagogical method in high schools, as Froebel himself applied it to the kindergarten, and as Dewey and his followers are applying it in the lower grades. The failure to apply this method partly explains the failure of high schools to interest and hold adolescents. Only by organized social participation can ideals and habits be socialized.

3. Appreciation (in the technical sense of that term as used in pedagogy) is an essential aim of social science teaching. An expert in secondary education admits that he does not know what is intended to be meant by social religion. No other confession could more shamefully uncover the nakedness of moral education in American schools. Social goals must be idealized until they appear as a kingdom of God; social responsibility must be motivated till it becomes the equivalent of a religious duty.

4. Sociology should be insisted upon as an essential part of the training of all teachers. It should be required on a par with psychology as a condition of certification. It should be a required subject in all colleges of education, normal schools, and teacher-training courses in high schools. A body of teachers who themselves lack the social point of view can hardly be relied upon to carry out successfully the reforms urged in this report.



## TRAINING FOR CITIZENSHIP IN THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION SECONDARY SCHOOLS<sup>1</sup>

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Within the last two years, as never before, there has echoed and re-echoed across our country a demand for full-blooded Americanism everywhere. The nation has, within that time, been newly impressed with Lincoln's famous dictum that "a house divided against itself cannot stand." It has accepted without reservation the Biblical precept that he who is not for our state is against it, and has set itself the task not alone of rooting out existing forms of anarchy and hyphenism, but also of protecting itself in the future against the unchallenged development of anti-American doctrines and of divided national allegiances.

To accomplish this job governmental machinery of improved patterns has lately been set in motion and corrective social agencies of many types have recently been established. Among the latter organizations are the various societies interested in the so-called Americanization movement. Their primary aim is to indoctrinate adult residents of foreign birth with the principles of democracy as these are set forth in the American Declaration of Independence and in the Constitution of the United States, and to habituate them to the national customs, the social forms, and the personal practices which have become the very foundations of our national life and character.

The instigating purpose of this movement is laudable indeed, and the work which is being done by the several societies is both extensive and admirable. But their activities do not grapple with the entire problem. Foreign-born residents are not the only ones who seriously need to be quickened with the true spirit of America and of Americanism. Altogether too many native-born citizens of our republic are lacking in a full appreciation of the privileges and benefits which they have inherited and which they today

<sup>1</sup> Preliminary report authorized by the North Central Association and presented at the annual meeting of the National Association of Secondary School Principals in Cleveland, Ohio, February 23, 1920.

enjoy, and are remiss in the exercise of the duties and obligations which society in general rightfully expects from them.

Neither is the problem likely to be solved nor the desired goals reached if attention is directed solely, or chiefly, to the adult members of our body politic. To nationalize individuals takes time. Education must be begun in the early days of life. "Just as the twig is bent the tree's inclined." Or, to combine the wisdom of Solomon with that of Pope: "Train up a child in the way he should go and when he is old he will not depart from it." It is the child and the youth who most of all need to be Americanized. If the on-coming generation of boys and girls can be imbued with right ideals and ideas and habits respecting the obligations of citizenship, the future of our nation is assured. If the on-coming generation of boys and girls be unguided in their thoughts, attitudes, and conduct regarding governmental principles and social relationships, confusion in the adjustment of individuals to individuals is likely to be heaped on confusion. The resulting effects on our national stability will, to say the least, tend to become uncertain and, in all probability, subversive of our cherished principles and forms of democracy. It, therefore, behooves the friends of America to look well to the civic and social training of our youth of today—the men and women voters and actors of tomorrow.

While the public schools cannot rightfully be charged with the entire responsibility of handling the problem suggested, nevertheless, being the specialized agencies which society has established for instructing and training youths to take their places effectively in the active affairs of the world, perhaps the largest share of the duty does devolve upon them. Nor are schoolmen indifferent to the task. Ever since schools, publicly supported and controlled, have existed in our land, training for citizenship has been one of their conspicuous aims. Indeed, a tax-supported school system could perhaps be justified on no other grounds. The state assumes the direction and defrays the expense of schools because the results of their work tend to the advantage of the state.

Nor has practice looking to the development of qualities of good citizenship among youths in the public schools been wanting. For many years every teacher and administrative officer in the system has, doubtless, both consciously and unconsciously, been teaching citizenship. And the work has not been ineffective.

While it may be that much of the social restlessness which is discoverable in America today may be charged to the theory of universal education, nevertheless such restlessness is not wholly disquieting. Progress is change, and change is inspired by restlessness. Though it may be confessed in sorrow that disrespect for established authority is too common a trait of schoolboys and schoolgirls in America today, that a superficiality of knowledge and a lack of persistency and accuracy in thought and action are too characteristic even of the graduates of our schools, and that a spirit of selfishness, not to say of indifference and laziness, distinguishes altogether too large a proportion of the young people of the land whenever there is hard work to be done and personal sacrifices to be made, nevertheless there is much to be charged to the other side of the ledger. The record of our young men in the late war, the activities of our young women in civilian work related to the war, the attitude of both the sexes towards the question of woman suffrage, the abolition of the saloon, and the suppression of the radical red agitations throughout the land—all these undertakings (and many others) are evidences of a popular civic interest and civic responsiveness that are gratifying. For this active expression of public spirit much credit surely must be given to the public schools as they have operated during the last generation.

In order to discover, as fully as possible, precisely what practices are being carried on in the secondary schools of the land with the direct intent of developing qualities of citizenship among the students enrolled in those schools, the North Central Association, through its Commission on Secondary Schools, made this topic the subject of their special investigation this year. A questionnaire was sent to each secondary school accredited by that association. It was accompanied by a *Note to Principals* stating the purpose of the study, defining the plan of procedure, and calling for hearty co-operation on their part.

The questionnaire laid down the thesis that "Good citizenship consists of being able and desirous of playing one's full part in the co-operative activities of one's community, state, and nation. It results from (1) altruistic emotions (interests and desires); (2) correct mental notions (knowledge and ideals); and (3) trained habits of response (spontaneous and studied actions)."

The questionnaire then proceeded to elude data showing the current practices in the high schools in respect to each of these three aspects of training, and also asked, under a fourth caption, for the expression of personal judgments concerning the wisdom of certain suggested practices. The four main categories of the study were, therefore, as follows:

A. Provisions for arousing desirable *sentiments* of citizenship.

B. Provisions for furnishing *information* relating to the privileges and duties of citizenship.

C. Provisions for securing from pupils *active participation* in affairs that tend to develop habits of spontaneous, and also studied, responses that make for good citizenship.

D. Expressions of the personal views of principals regarding certain specific policies.

In so far as possible, all questions were put in a form calling for the categorical answer, "Yes" or "No." A few questions were not of this type but called for positive statements of practice couched in concrete terms. Some of these latter questions were employed in order to serve as a check on the replies to the more general queries, and some were used because no other way of getting assured information seemed feasible. An illustration of the latter type of question is the following: "In what specific ways does your school seek to give pupils a sympathetic understanding and a desire for fair dealing, concerning problems of labor and capital?"

Questionnaires were returned from 1,180 schools, distributed over the 18 states comprised within the North Central Association territory. Few school officials made replies to every question asked, and many were inconsistent in the answers given. Thus, for example, more than one principal declared that his school offered no work in elementary sociology or elementary economics and then, in a space or so below, stated that the classes in these subjects met five times per week.

Nevertheless, despite these inconsistencies, the responses as a whole give evidence of thoughtful interest and painstaking effort. They surely are complete and accurate enough to give an indication of what the common school practices are. One cannot help feeling, however, that where slovenly, inaccurate replies were made, and where, instead of giving the data requested, space was taken to

condemn the entire questionnaire and the aims of the association—one cannot help feeling that when such conditions are evidenced the school authorities are missing the spirit of the age and in their egotism and slothfulness are injuring their own interests more than those of others.

The table appearing at the end of this report gives the summaries of the replies made to the several queries:

A. Provisions for exciting sentiments of citizenship.

1. *Assembly talks.*—Of the 1,180 schools reporting, 1,164 claim to have assembly talks in which effort is made to stimulate in pupils sentiments and interests of citizenship. Only 33 of these schools hold such meetings daily, although 155 others provide for them two or three times per week. The most common practice apparently is to hold assembly periods regularly once per week, 520 schools reporting that such is their custom. On the other hand, 427 schools make use of this agency only at irregular intervals, or at periods considerably less frequent than weekly.

Most of the schools (1,053) are in the habit of securing as speakers at the assembly meetings prominent local citizens and notable out-of-town visitors. Among the local citizens mentioned most frequently are ministers, public officials, and successful business men who are known for their public spirit and for qualities of good citizenship. In 71 schools the pupils themselves are encouraged to deliver speeches and talks, while in only 363 schools are the classroom teachers expected to contribute to the exercises. The superintendents and principals in 408 schools constitute the chief force for carrying on the work.

While this report rightfully must concern itself chiefly with facts and their obvious interpretations and not with personal opinions, the query persistently arises: Why, in a matter so important as citizenship, are the assembly periods, as agencies for arousing right sentiments, so infrequently employed, and why are the services of the pupils, teachers, and administrative officers so rarely employed in presenting the theme?

2. *Music.*—As in the case of assembly talks, so music of a stirring patriotic kind is employed by most schools to inculcate sentiments of citizenship. In 131 instances it is provided daily or at the regular assembly periods, in 654 schools it is furnished at least once per week, and in 239 cases it constitutes a part of special day exercises or is a feature occasionally provided.

3. *Oral readings.*—Seven hundred and sixty-eight schools are accustomed to having oral readings given by pupils and teachers, such readings being designed to fire the emotions with civic zeal. Two hundred and ten schools have nothing of the kind.

4. *Prescribed class readings.*—Prescribed class readings of an inspirational character are found in 869 schools, while 175 schools openly declare that they make use of no such material. Whether these last figures are indicative of indifference to the value of inspirational literature as an agency for developing civic ideals, or whether the figures illustrate again merely the carelessness of individuals filling in the blanks, there is no way of determining. It seems almost incredulous that 175 schools of North Central Association rank should deliberately neglect to make use of material so generally recognized as valuable for character training.

5. *Dramatization.*—Only 398 schools profess to make any use of dramatization as a means of portraying civic duties and ways of meeting them, while 614 schools frankly acknowledge that such undertakings have no part in their systems. If the dramatic instinct in adolescent youths is as strong as psychologists declare, and if dramatization of wholesome events, scenes, and ideals is as beneficial as many experienced educators claim, some authority surely should exert its influence to secure more general adoption of this agency as a means of civic training in our schools.

6. *Pageantry.*—It may be somewhat surprising to know that 352 out of 1,026 schools reporting do make use of pageantry as an agency for developing ideals and sentiments of citizenship. Although allied to the drama, this kind of human representation seems to be regarded as possessing values not found in the former type of theatricals. Surely the use of pageantry on the fairly extensive scale indicated is a relatively new feature in the schools, as only rarely has the subject been mentioned in previous reports.

7. *Moving pictures.*—Pictures depicting civic interests and individual responses thereto are provided in 290 schools, while 710 schools make no use of this potential educational agency.

8. *Stereopticons.*—These, on the other hand, seem to be more generally employed, 438 schools reporting them in use while 541 report they are not found in their schools.

9. *Literature.*—The full wording of this topic in the questionnaire was: "Is literature in your school so taught as to give pupils



an *enthusiasm* for things that are more excellent?—Name three specific ways this is done."

Of the schools replying, 1,030 declare that the subject is so taught, while 38 boldly, and seemingly without chagrin, express themselves in the negative. More than 100 schools sending in the report refused or neglected to write the little word "yes" or "no" in answer to this question. This number is, however, approximately the number of drones that have manifested their presence about each of the other questions asked, and hence probably should excite no special concern. It is, however, pertinent to remind such delinquents that standard No. 8 of the association reads: "*No school shall be considered unless the regular annual blank furnished for the purpose shall have been properly and completely filled out and placed on file with the inspector.*" Furthermore, by vote of the association, the blank calling for data for the annual special study has been duly authorized and made a part of the regular procedure of the association.

The specific ways by which literature is taught in order to attain the ends sought are varied, and the modes of stating on the report how the work is carried on are still more varied. Few schools mentioned *three* ways which were employed by them in conducting the work; many—even of those which claimed to be putting forth the endeavor—failed to mention one. Moreover, the replies given range from such phrases as "oral training," "vitalizing ideals," "contrasting good and bad," "essays on politics," "refinement of tastes," "good teachers," to expressions like "selections of patriotic classics," "biography," "inspirational teaching," "class discussions," and "memorization work."

Obviously, it was impossible to classify the replies with any degree of simplicity and at the same time with positive accuracy. Eliminating many answers from consideration entirely, and using rather free power of interpretation, the following practices were recorded: by means of careful selection of subject-matter to be read in the classes, 599; by means of memorization work, 75; by means of the dramatic appeal, 179; by means of the interpretative power of teachers, 586; and by means of class discussions and debates, 213.

10. *Excursions.*—The entire question as printed under this caption read: "Do teachers in your school conduct classes to places

and institutions which reveal conditions that stir in pupils desires to render social service?—Name three types of visits thus made."

Only 495 schools seem to be in the habit of undertaking this type of school excursion; 538 state positively they do not do so; and approximately 150 ignored the query. As in the replies to question No. 9, it is not possible to classify all answers under a few simple headings and be sure they are truly connotative. Nevertheless, with due allowances for misinterpretation of intent, the types of visits may be given thus: (a) to civic councils and offices, 166; (b) to state institutions (legislatures, army camps, state fairs, etc.), 73; (c) to courts and penal institutions, 185; (d) to charitable institutions (hospitals, homes for the blind, deaf, and feeble-minded, poor farms, insane asylums, etc.), 100; (e) to social settlements (poor districts, alien districts, etc.), 77; (f) to religious and educational institutions (church services, memorial exercises, art museums, universities, rural schools, Chautauquas, libraries, etc.), 33; (g) to local voluntary organizations and undertakings (charity associations, women's clubs, chambers of commerce, Rotary club meetings, patriotic speeches, parades, etc.), 54; (h) to industrial and commercial places (manufacturing plants, mines, farms, stockyards, banks, etc.), 211.

B. Provisions for providing information respecting citizenship.

The second main division of the questionnaire was concerned with the modes of furnishing *information* relating to the privileges and duties of citizenship.

1. *Civics*.—Of the 1,180 schools sending in reports, 1,148 have courses in civics in the high school. In 989 of these schools the course is wholly separate and distinct from the courses in history, while 144 schools stated it is a part of a course with history. The subject is, for the most part, a Senior offering, 886 schools providing for it in that grade. In 339 schools, however, Juniors are admitted to the course, and in 160 schools the course is distinctively one for ninth-grade pupils. Only 76 schools offer the work in the tenth grade, and where this is done the course seems to be the same as the ninth-grade course, but is open to both ninth- and tenth-grade pupils.

In 890 schools the civics course is one-half year in length, in 43 schools it is less than half a year, and in 185 schools it is allotted an entire year's time. A further question sought to bring out the

practice regarding the administration of the several courses. Replies were so confusing that no attempt was made to compile them. In general, the questionnaire disclosed the fact that the course offered in the eleventh and twelfth grades is prescribed for all who expect to be graduated. In several instances the courses are prescribed for students in particular curricula, as, for example, in the commercial or in the manual-training curriculum.

The replies received gave a rather surprising unanimity of practice in the use of textbooks. Except in a few states in which "official leaflets" are provided, and except in a goodly number of schools in which no definite printed material is used, the texts are (almost without other exceptions) confined to the ones enumerated in the table.

Almost without exception, too, the courses in civics meet five times per week.

Below the high school, civics is taught in 871 of the schools reporting, whereas in 112 districts no such course is offered. The textbooks used in these elementary-school courses are less uniform than in the high schools, although, as the table reveals, a certain few predominate.

2. *Elementary sociology.*—This subject is found in 298 schools while 770 schools acknowledge they do not offer such work. In 230 schools the course is separate from courses in civics and in 238 schools separate from courses in history. In 186 schools the work is offered in the twelfth grade, in 119 it is open to pupils of the eleventh grade, and in 39 it is open to ninth- or tenth-grade pupils. In 218 schools classes meet five times per week.

While apparently much of the work in elementary sociology is carried on by means of miscellaneous printed material furnished by the teacher, and while several schools employ textbooks of various kinds, four books in particular take prominent places in the list. These are mentioned in the table.

3. *Elementary economics.*—Work in elementary economics is reported as follows: 696 schools offer the subject; 406 do not; 662 present it in a course separate from courses in history; 609 in courses separate from civics; and 511 in courses separate from elementary sociology. In 622 schools, the classes meet five periods per week.

As in the case of most of the courses in civics and sociology, the work in economics is offered in the eleventh or twelfth grades,

although 52 list the course as a ninth- or tenth-grade subject. On the other hand, 497 list it as a twelfth-grade subject and 322 as an eleventh-grade subject. Regarding textbooks used, only five are mentioned more than a very few times, these five being listed in the table.

4. *Current events*.—One thousand and eight schools report having a course dealing with current events, though 121 schools do not have such a course. For the most part, the work is connected with the courses in history, civics, sociology, and economics (911 schools so reporting) and with work in English (518 schools so reporting), although 176 schools claim to provide an absolutely separate and distinct course for the study. In 592 schools the weekly time allotment for the subject is from 40 to 50 minutes; in 150 schools it is less than this amount of time; and in 121 schools it is more than this amount. The work seems to be prescribed for some group or groups of pupils in every school, 278 mentioning those taking specified history and civics courses, 136 those taking certain courses in English, and 618 those of other groups, as, for example, those in the commercial curriculum, the normal training curriculum, or ninth-grade pupils.

Whenever specific sources of information are given for the current events work, six well-known magazines lead the list. These are the *Literary Digest*, the *Independent*, the *Current Events* magazine, the *Outlook*, *Review of Reviews*, and the *World's Work*. Four hundred and twenty-eight schools mentioned "newspapers" (unspecified) and 531 schools had their materials recorded merely as "magazines."

5. *Morals, manners, and life problems*.—One hundred and twelve schools claim to have a definite course of this type offered in their program of studies. What the character of such courses is or what the mode of conducting them may be, the data in no wise reveal.

6. *Occupations*.—One hundred and ninety-four schools claim to offer a course styled "Occupations" or some similar title. No further information regarding the work is, however, indicated in the reports.

7. *History*.—It is a well-known fact that courses in history are offered in every public secondary school. The query in the questionnaire was, therefore, directed to discover whether those history

courses are (to quote from the questionnaire itself) "taught not alone to reveal facts but to make every boy and girl believe and understand the worth of being free." The blank also called for "three specific ways this is done."

Of the schools replying, 1,057 claimed that history is taught with the end in view of making pupils feel the worth of being free. How this task is accomplished is not so easy to state. The replies included such answers as: comparisons, character study, illustrations, notebooks, ideals, classes, slavery, bulletin board, class spirit, talks, current events, special reports, etc. By the process of free interpretation, these replies were subsumed under the following general captions: stressing American ideals, 639; stressing development of free institutions, 446; treating current social problems, 403; stressing the responsibilities of citizenship, 155.

8. *Biography*.—Of the 1,180 schools reporting, 1,012 answered "Yes" to the following question: "Are the lives of great men and women studied in your school with particular reference to revealing the personal qualities of character which constitute true Americanism, e.g., love of freedom, courage, honor, justice, loyalty, human equality, integrity, force?" Of these, 657 declared the work is carried on in connection with the history and English courses, while 461 stated that the study is made in an independent course or as parts of special school programs.

9. *Problems of labor and capital*.—To the query, "In what ways does your school seek to give pupils a sympathetic understanding and a desire for fair dealing, concerning problems of labor and capital?" the following replies (after being edited) were obtained: through assembly talks, 161; through debates and discussions, 330; through the agency of regular class work, 526; through selected readings and current events reports, 176.

10. *Wholesome use of leisure*.—To the query, "In what ways does your school seek to impress on pupils the need of utilizing leisure time in a wholesome way?" replies that ran the whole gamut of possibilities were given of which the following are illustrative: care of school property, order in public places, school discipline, democratic dress, practice in leadership, community singing, clubs, athletics, campaign against smoking, record marks, social responsibilities, examples, self-government, discussions, supervised recreation, use of library, school moving pictures, talks, etc. Condensed

into the most commonly suggested categories the replies are: (a) athletics, 159; (b) lectures and talks, 301; (c) suggested readings, 188; (d) supervision of student affairs, 173; (e) student clubs and societies, 194.

11. *Books read by pupils.*—To the question asking for a list of five books which are most extensively read by high-school pupils and which aim specially to present lessons in citizenship, almost enough different books were mentioned to fill a moderate-sized library. When, however, those are excluded from consideration which, in each state, were mentioned only once or twice or thrice, the entire number dwindles to 15. Hale's *The Man Without a Country* leads all other books in popularity, being mentioned 125 times, although Riis's two books, *Making an American* and *How the Other Half Lives* together outnumber Hale's by 14. Biographies and works of Roosevelt, Franklin, and Lincoln, and the writings of Steiner, Antin, Jane Addams, and Booker T. Washington likewise were mentioned frequently.

12. *Magazines read by pupils.*—Sixteen magazines commonly read by pupils were mentioned in excess of 30 times, and no other magazine than those included in the table was listed that number of times. Since each school was requested to enumerate the five most extensively used periodicals of this sort, the unanimity of reading interests shown by pupils is remarkable. Likewise the type of reading indicated is gratifying. Not one "yellow" magazine is found in the group, but, on the other hand, there are several that might be classed as "ultra blue." In the lists given the *Literary Digest* is conspicuous by the long lead it has over others, being mentioned 841 times in a possible total of 1,180. The *Independent* and the *Outlook* are close to the five hundred mark; *World's Work* and *Review of Reviews* are in the three hundred class; *Current Events* and the *American* hover about the node of one hundred and fifty; and the others bring up the field.

C. Provisions for habit formation.

A third division of the study—Division C—concerned itself with the agencies which are employed in the schools in order to give pupils active participation in affairs that tend to develop habits of spontaneous, as well as studied, responses that make for good citizenship. The summarizing table given on the following page indicates the scope of the inquiry and the character of the replies.



This is a fair array of agencies for affording opportunities to pupils to acquire habits of good citizenship through the only known way to acquire them, namely, by practicing the qualities of good citizenship. No doubt, the list could wisely be extended in many schools.

Type of Agency	Number Schools Having	Number Schools Not Having	Number Schools Not Replying
1. Junior Red Cross Societies.	880	172	128
2. Junior Good Citizenship League.....	76	658	446
3. Boy Scout Organization...	651	305	224
4. Girl Scout Organization...	522	387	271
5. Thrift clubs.....	421	458	301
6. School paper.....	666	360	154
7. Military training.....	208	720	252
8. Debating clubs.....	863	194	123
9. Mock elections.....	568	379	233
10. Student self-government...	306	550	324
11. Community centers.....	373	398	309

A detailed analysis of the larger table shows that among the schools which provide military training, 83 prescribe it for all boys, 107 make it optional or elective, and 18 ignore the question.

Similarly, in the portions of the table relating to student self-government, 148 schools state that they publicly advertise the fact, whereas 393 schools declare they do not do so. Since only 306 schools claim to have student self-government agencies at all, there is obviously some misstatement of fact or misinterpretation of facts connected with this topic. It is observed, too, that 242 schools claim to have formal machinery for the operation of student self-government, 204 schools assert that teachers have much control over it, and 255 schools state that the plan is administered with little interference or control by teachers. In short, the replies to this entire topic are confusing, and little credence seemingly can be placed in them.

Again, the questionnaire, after giving several factors alleged to be essentials of patriotism, sought to bring out statements respecting the ways these factors are taught in the schools. The answers indicate that, for the most part, school authorities rely upon the routine of the regular school work to inculcate patriotic principles, although a large number of schools (381) lay the stress upon having pupils participate in the various school organizations as the best

means of accomplishing the end. Among the other means suggested are: patriotic celebrations, 96; talks and lectures, 189; self-government agencies, 223; student co-operative societies, 169; and athletics, 123.

#### Opinions:

Another division of the study sought to bring out a statement of the personal views of superintendents and principals regarding certain more or less untried ideas of training. The first question pertained to having high-school pupils subscribe to an oath modeled on the ephebic oath formerly taken by Athenian boys. The full oath was not given in the questionnaire, but only the following salient portions, namely: "I will transmit my fatherland, not only not less, but greater and better than it was transmitted to me. I will obey the magistrates who may at any time be in power. I will observe both the existing laws and those which the people may hereafter unanimously make, and if any person seek to annul the laws or set them at naught, I will do my best to prevent him, and I will defend them both alone and with many, (and) I will honor the religion of my fathers."

The authorities in 428 schools favored the adoption of a pledge of this sort; 415 opposed doing so; and 337 expressed no opinion.

The second question related to having in each school a Junior Civic League, one of whose obligations on its members should be, to perform at least one act of civic worth daily. This thought was built on the idea of the Boy Scout Organization. Six hundred and seventy-two school authorities approved the plan; 183 opposed; and 325 ignored the query.

The third question read: "Would you favor having established in your school a branch of the society known as the Universal Service for Social Improvement (U. S. S. I.), and to have your pupils subscribe to its program and wear its emblem (Red Star)?" Probably few had heard of this society, nor was the question as clear as it should have been. The vote on it was: favoring, 432; opposing, 207; not voting, 541.

The fourth question read, "What do you regard as the three very best specific ways of inculcating habits of good citizenship in boys and girls?" Replies were expressed in multitudinous forms. However, by exercising the process of rather free interpretation, the following eight groupings were secured:

1. Good teaching in all branches.....	346
2. Courses in social science and literature.....	188
3. Stressing ideals of conduct by teachers.....	381
4. Personal example of teachers.....	277
5. Placing responsibilities on pupils personally.....	284
6. Student organizations.....	328
7. Providing opportunities for out-of-school service to society.....	149
8. School discipline.....	150

The answers are not very satisfactory, first, because they represent the views of only the small number of individuals who took the trouble to reply at all, and secondly, because the replies that were given could not possibly all be listed under the headings given above.

In conclusion, it is pertinent to inquire, first, what deductions follow from the study thus made, and, secondly, what value is derivable from them.

In the first place, it seems to the writer that the study clearly shows that the North Central Association secondary schools are, as a body, alert and alive to the need for providing training in citizenship, and that they are employing, possibly as fully as could properly be expected, all of the available means to attain that end.

Second, the study shows that although the association is a unifying agency, much flexibility of administration is to be found among the various schools, each adapting its program to local conditions and needs.

Third, although knowledge *about* the rights and duties of citizenship is still the most emphasized aspect of civic training, still provisions for stirring the emotions and for exercising the will in pupils are conspicuous features of many schools, and the means employed to attain these ends are suitably varied in character.

Fourth, courses of study designed primarily to give direct instruction and training in citizenship are, for the most part, deferred to the last two years of the school work, thereby bringing their influences to bear solely upon those pupils who have before them a complete high-school education.

Fifth, teaching ideals of citizenship and personal character seems to be one of the leading aims of many courses of study in the high school—particularly the courses in history, English, and foreign languages—and is not confined to courses in elementary social science.

Sixth, the "inspirational" and "interpretative" powers of teachers in all subjects are relied upon as the best and surest agencies for developing qualities of citizenship among pupils.

Seventh, agencies that make their appeal to the eye—dramatics, pageants, moving pictures, stereopticon slides, and real concrete situations in the adult world—are being extensively employed to teach the lessons desired.

Eighth, courses in elementary sociology, in occupations, and in morals, manners, and life problems are not yet finding any conspicuous place in the school programs of studies.

Ninth, suitable textbooks for courses in all phases of citizenship instruction are, as yet, few in number.

Tenth, the interrelating of school work and out-of-school interests is particularly noticeable in matters pertaining to instruction in citizenship.

Eleventh, high-school boys and girls are readers of books and magazines that are worth while, and read with avidity if material that is interesting is placed before them.

Twelfth, school authorities are very much in doubt regarding the best ways to teach pupils the wholesome use of leisure time, and need to be instructed.

Thirteenth, biographical material as an agency in civic training holds a conspicuous place in the organization of most schools.

Fourteenth, the Boy and the Girl Scout movements have already got a firm footing in the halls of the secondary school.

Fifteenth, military training for high-school boys has likewise found much support among North Central Association secondary schools.

Sixteenth, student self-government has become a reality in approximately one-fourth of the schools reporting, although in only one-half of these schools is the plan given publicity or operated by means of formal machinery.

Seventeenth, most schools seem to place great faith in the civic training afforded by the school papers, debating clubs, mock elections, and other types of student co-operating organizations.

Eighteenth, the community-center idea, so far as it applies to the use of the high-school building for that purpose, is of relatively small significance.

See p. 273c

Nineteenth, many school men favor the establishment within the schools of some kind of a society the chief purpose of which should be the deepening among students of the sense of responsibility to the state.

Twentieth, a goodly proportion of the school authorities rely upon the personal example of teachers, the regular class work, and the regular discipline of the school to furnish the civic ideals, knowledge, and training needed by the youths who attend.

As a final word one may perhaps venture to express the thought that possibly the greatest value of this study is, after all, not so much the facts that have been compiled, or the general deductions that have been made, but, on the contrary, the suggestiveness to school authorities as to what is possible in the way of giving more effective training in citizenship. Surely, it is demonstrable that mere knowledge about citizenship is not sufficient to insure proper reactions to the real conditions of social life. To knowledge must be added interest, and to interest practice in well-doing.

STATISTICAL SUMMARY OF RETURNS ON THE QUESTIONNAIRE ON  
TRAINING FOR CITIZENSHIP

Number schools reporting.....	1,180	IV. Prescribed class readings	
Number developing citizenship through		1. Schools having.....	869
A. Arousing sentiments by means of		2. Schools not having.....	175
I. Assembly talks.....	1,164	V. Dramatics	
1. Frequency of meetings		1. Schools having.....	398
a) Daily.....	33	2. Schools not having.....	614
b) Weekly.....	520	VI. Pageantry	
c) 2 or 3 times weekly..	155	1. Schools having.....	352
d) 1, 2, or 3 times monthly.....	230	2. Schools not having.....	674
e) Occasionally and irregularly.....	197	VII. Moving pictures	
2. Speakers		1. Schools having.....	290
a) Superintendent and principal.....	408	2. Schools not having.....	710
b) Teachers.....	363	VIII. Stereopticons	
c) Students.....	71	1. Schools having.....	438
d) Local citizens and notables.....	1,053	2. Schools not having.....	541
II. Music of stirring type.....	1,142	IX. Literature taught inspirationally	
1. Frequency		1. Schools claiming to do so..	1,030
a) Daily or at occasional assemblies.....	131	2. Schools failing to do so....	38
b) 1, 2, or 3 times weekly	654	3. Schools doing so by means of	
c) Occasionally.....	239	a) Selected readings....	599
III. Oral readings before classes		b) Memorization work....	75
1. Schools having.....	768	c) Dramatic appeal....	179
2. Schools not having.....	210	d) Interpretative power of teachers.....	586
		e) Class discussions and debates.....	213

X. Visits to places and institutions		
1. Schools doing so.....	495	
2. Schools not doing so.....	538	
a) Civic councils and offices.....	166	
b) State institutions....	73	
c) Courts and penal institutions.....	185	
d) Charitable institutions.....	100	
e) Social settlements... ..	77	
f) Religious and educational institutions..	33	
g) Local voluntary organizations.....	54	
h) Factories, mines, farms, etc.....	211	
B. Giving citizenship information through		
I. A course in civics		
1. Schools having.....	1,148	
2. In course separated from history.....	989	
3. In course with history....	144	
4. In grades		
a) Ninth.....	160	
b) Tenth.....	76	
c) Eleventh.....	339	
d) Twelfth.....	886	
5. Length of courses		
a) Less than half year..	43	
b) Half year.....	890	
c) One year.....	185	
6. Texts used in high school <sup>1</sup>		
a) Ashley's <i>The New Civics and American Government</i> .....	153	
b) Hughes' <i>Community Civics</i> .....	116	
c) Magruder's <i>American Government</i> .....	144	
d) Guitteau's <i>Government and Politics in the United States</i> .....	208	
e) Boynton's <i>School Civics</i> .....	33	
f) Woodburn and Moran's <i>Citizen and the Republic</i> .....	55	
g) Garner's <i>Government in the United States</i> .....	73	
h) Dunn's <i>The Community and the Citizen</i> .....	28	
i) Forman's <i>Advanced Civics</i> .....	72	
j) James and Sanford's <i>Government in State and Nation</i> .....	137	
7. Recitations five times weekly.....	1,072	
8. Civics below the high school		
a) Schools having.....	871	
b) Schools not having..	112	
9. Texts used below high school		
a) Dunn's <i>Community Civics</i> .....	85	
b) Turkington's <i>My Country</i> .....	74	
c) Forman's <i>Essentials in Civil Government</i> ...	32	
d) Hughes' <i>Community Civics</i> .....	117	
e) Guitteau's <i>Preparing for Citizenship</i> ....	63	
f) Nida's <i>City, State, and Nation</i> .....	21	
g) Others.....	111	
II. A course in elementary sociology		
1. Schools having.....	298	
2. Schools not having.....	770	
3. Course separate from civics	230	
4. Course separate from history.....	238	
5. Texts used		
a) Tufts' <i>The Real Business of Living</i> .....	37	
b) Towne's <i>Social Problems</i> .....	103	
c) Ellwood's <i>Sociology and Modern Social Problems</i> .....	22	
d) Burch and Patterson's <i>American Social Problems</i> .....	15	
6. Grades offered		
a) Ninth.....	17	
b) Tenth.....	22	
c) Eleventh.....	119	
d) Twelfth.....	186	
7. Five recitations weekly...	218	
III. A course in elementary economics		
1. Schools having.....	696	
2. Schools not having.....	406	
3. Separate from history.....	662	
4. Separate from civics.....	609	
5. Separate from sociology...	511	
6. Texts used		
a) Thompson's <i>Elementary Economics</i> ....	64	

<sup>1</sup> In addition to the texts named here occasionally others are mentioned. The same holds true of the lists given in II and III below.



b) Ely and Wicker's <i>Principles of Elementary Economics</i> .....	199	5. Responsibilities of citizenship.....	155
c) Bullock's <i>Elements of Economics</i> .....	127	VIII. Biography studied.....	
d) Burch and Nearing's <i>Elements of Economics</i> .....	70	1. In some way unspecified..	1,012
e) Laughlin's <i>Elements of Political Economy</i> ..	43	2. In history and English courses.....	657
7. Grades offered.....		3. In special programs or independently.....	461
a) Ninth.....	11	IX. Knowledge of the problems of capital and labor gained through.....	
b) Tenth.....	41	1. Assembly talks.....	161
c) Eleventh.....	322	2. Debates and discussions...	330
d) Twelfth.....	497	3. Regular class work.....	526
8. Five recitations weekly...	622	4. Readings and current events reports.....	176
IV. A course in current events.....		X. Training to use leisure time wholesomely by means of...	
1. Schools having.....	1,008	1. School athletics.....	159
2. Schools not having.....	121	2. Lectures and talks.....	301
3. As separate course.....	176	3. Suggested readings.....	188
4. As course connected with.....		4. Supervision of student af- fairs.....	173
a) History, civics, sociol- ogy, economics...	911	5. Student clubs and societies.	194
b) English.....	518	XI. Reading the following books:	
5. Time allotment per week.....		1. Hale's <i>The Man Without a Country</i> .....	125
a) Under 40 minutes....	150	2. <i>Theodore Roosevelt</i> (Life and works) (Various authors)	55
b) From 40 to 50 min- utes.....	592	3. Ellis's <i>Making an Ameri- can</i> .....	106
c) Over 50 minutes.....	121	4. Gauss's <i>Democracy Today</i> ..	98
6. Sources of information.....		5. Antin's <i>The Promised Land</i>	73
a) <i>Current Events</i> .....	146	6. Washington's <i>Up from Slavery</i> .....	38
b) <i>Literary Digest</i> .....	376	7. Ellis's <i>How the Other Half Lives</i> .....	33
c) <i>Outlook</i> .....	104	8. Tufts' <i>The Real Business of Living</i> .....	35
d) <i>Independent</i> .....	154	9. <i>Biographies of Great Men</i> (Various authors).....	97
e) <i>Review of Reviews</i> ...	49	10. <i>American Statesmen Series</i> (Various authors).....	65
f) <i>World's Work</i> .....	27	11. Watkins and Williams' <i>Forum of Democracy</i> ....	38
g) Newspapers (unspeci- fied).....	428	12. Franklin's <i>Autobiography</i> ..	22
h) Magazines (unspeci- fied).....	531	13. Turkington's <i>My Country</i> ..	31
7. Prescribed for.....		14. Beard's <i>American Ideals</i> ....	23
a) Pupils in history and civics courses.....	278	15. <i>World War Aims and Ideals</i> (Various authors).....	50
b) Pupils in English courses.....	136	XII. Reading the following magazines:	
c) Designated groups of pupils.....	618	1. <i>Literary Digest</i> .....	841
V. A course in morals, manners, and life problems.....	112	2. <i>Independent</i> .....	542
VI. A course in occupations (or simi- lar course).....	194	3. <i>Outlook</i> .....	472
VII. History taught by stressing.....		4. <i>World's Work</i> .....	314
1. The worth of being free....	1,057	5. <i>Review of Reviews</i> .....	312
2. American ideals.....	639	6. <i>Current Events</i> .....	164
3. Development of free insti- tutions.....	446		
4. Current social problems...	403		

7. <i>American</i> .....	136	5. Schools having formal machinery for.....	242
8. <i>Popular Mechanics</i> .....	51	6. Schools having teachers exert much control.....	204
9. <i>American Boy</i> .....	52	7. Schools having teachers exert little control.....	255
10. <i>Atlantic Monthly</i> .....	57	XI. Schools inculcating patriotism through	
11. <i>Current Opinion</i> .....	74	1. Patriotic celebrations.....	96
12. <i>New Republic</i> .....	33	2. Talks and lectures.....	189
13. <i>Pathfinder</i> .....	62	3. Self-government agencies.....	223
14. <i>National Geographic Magazine</i> .....	60	4. Student co-operative associations.....	169
15. <i>Saturday Evening Post</i> .....	43	5. Participation in school organizations.....	381
16. <i>Current History</i> .....	39	6. Athletics.....	123
C. Giving practice in citizenship through connection with		7. Regular class work.....	353
I. Junior Red Cross Societies		8. School discipline.....	127
1. Schools having.....	880	XII. Community centers	
2. Schools not having.....	172	1. Schools having.....	373
II. Junior Good Citizenship League or similar organization		2. Schools not having.....	398
1. Schools having.....	76	Expressions of personal views	
2. Schools not having.....	658	I. Authorities favoring a school pledge.....	428
III. Boy Scout Organization		II. Authorities not favoring a school pledge.....	415
1. Schools having.....	651	III. Authorities favoring a Junior Civic League.....	672
2. Schools not having.....	305	IV. Authorities not favoring a Junior Civic League.....	183
IV. Girl Scout Organization or Campfire Girls		V. Authorities favoring a local branch of society of Universal Service for Social Improvement.....	432
1. Schools having.....	522	VI. Authorities not favoring such branch.....	207
2. Schools not having.....	387	VII. Authorities believing training for citizenship can best be secured through	
V. Thrift clubs		1. Good teaching in all branches.....	346
1. Schools having.....	421	2. Courses in the social sciences and literature.....	188
2. Schools not having.....	458	3. Stressing ideals of conduct by teachers.....	381
VI. School paper		4. Personal example of teachers.....	277
1. Schools having.....	666	5. Placing responsibilities for pupils personally.....	284
2. Schools not having.....	360	6. Student organizations.....	328
VII. Military training		7. Providing out-of-school services for society.....	149
1. Schools having.....	208	8. School discipline.....	150
2. Schools not having.....	720		
3. Schools prescribing it for boys.....	83		
4. Schools making it optional.....	107		
VIII. Debating clubs			
1. Schools having.....	863		
2. Schools not having.....	194		
IX. Mock elections			
1. Schools having.....	568		
2. Schools not having.....	379		
X. Student self-government agencies			
1. Schools having.....	306		
2. Schools not having.....	550		
3. Schools publicly advertising the fact.....	148		
4. Schools not publicly advertising the fact.....	393		

## REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE HIGH SCHOOL<sup>1</sup>

The Committee on Social Studies in the High School has carried out two lines of investigation during the year. First, it has made careful analyses of some of the textbooks in civics in most common use and is prepared to discuss these books in such a way as to bring out through comparison their most important characteristics. Secondly, there were secured from the publishers lists of schools which use seven of these books and nearly two hundred and fifty letters were sent asking for criticism and suggestions about the particular book used and also about the general problem of teaching social studies. One hundred and thirteen letters came in reply to our inquiries. These were in many cases careful, critical discussions and yield many suggestions which we shall try to pass on in summary form. They are more useful for our present purpose than would be the same number of letters from high schools picked at random from a general list, because in each case we are in contact with a school which has at least made a beginning of teaching social science in some form or other.

The committee takes this opportunity to express to the publishers and those who wrote replies to the letters its appreciation of their co-operation. No one can be expected to rejoice when he gets a questionnaire and anyone who sends out a request for information ought to be grateful to those who take time to reply.

The committee also has to report two other steps which it has taken in promoting the cause for which it was created. It found Professor C. O. Davis engaged in an elaborate inquiry with regard to the teaching of civics for the North Central Association. It immediately added him, with his consent, to the committee. It then co-operated with him in securing permission from the Executive Committee of the North Central Association for the presentation of a preliminary report at this meeting. The securing of this generous piece of co-operation may be regarded by some as the most valuable and successful achievement of the committee.

<sup>1</sup> Presented by Charles H. Judd, secretary, at the annual meeting of the National Association of Secondary School Principals in Cleveland, Ohio, February 23, 1920.

The second collateral line of effort on the part of the committee was the careful study of reports on social studies presented by committees of other organizations. One such report presented to the American Sociological Society will be printed in full in the *School Review* of April so as to be readily accessible to the members of this organization. The report of the History Committee presented in December to the American Historical Association was published by the *Historical Outlook* in June, 1919, and a summary of the discussion at the meeting of the Historical Association was published in the issue of the *Historical Outlook* of February, 1920. The committee will come back to these reports before other associations at the end of its statement of its own findings.

A broad general statement of this committee's views can perhaps appropriately be made as a preface to its detailed report. Everywhere there is a conviction that the schools must teach present-day social conditions. Everywhere there is a disposition to find a way of introducing such teaching into the curriculum. Two great obstacles are encountered—first, the lack of satisfactory material for use in instruction, and secondly, the difficulty in placing the work in the program. With great eagerness to do the work on the one side and serious obstructions on the other, there result a running to and fro and much restless experimentation. Perhaps we are not floundering utterly in this matter, but we are at least having a very bad time. The committee is quite prepared to show a way out of all the difficulties; it warns you, however, that its program cannot be put through without heroic co-operative efforts on the part of the members of this organization.

The committee has not attempted to deal with the subject of history although that is usually included under the general term "social studies." A careful reading of the discussion carried on at the meeting of the American Historical Association leaves on the mind of the reader the impression that the historians have a number of problems to solve before their own subject can be said to be satisfactorily organized. Beyond commenting on the desirability of disentangling the treatment of current social conditions from historical studies, this committee has thought it wise to leave history to the experts in that field. If they can be encouraged to see the importance of giving up the chronological principle of organization of school curricula and can be persuaded that ancient

history is less important than modern, much good will come of their discussion. In the meantime, this report is about other matters than history. Social studies, as the term is employed in this report, includes sociology, economics, ethics, vocational guidance, and civics, not history. The field of immediate interest here under consideration is present-day social life.

Turning to the details, let us begin with an analysis of seven commonly used texts. For this analysis the committee is indebted to Mr. F. D. Brooks, a Fellow in the Graduate Department of Education of the University of Chicago. The method of this analysis consisted in establishing certain general categories under which paragraphs in the several texts could be classified and then determining the amount of space which belonged under each category. Mr. Brooks has defined his categories and methods of classifying material as follows:

*Sociology* includes all treatment of forms of association not economic, political, or governmental, and all discussions of public welfare that did not seem to come specifically under another heading. This treatment of it as an omnibus category is perhaps less arbitrary than it sounds since sociology may be considered a general term for human relationships, of which the other headings refer to special types.

All discussions that develop standards of conduct have been classed as *Ethics*, whether the considerations that gave rise to them were social, economic, vocational, or political.

Under *Economics* have been included not only discussions of economic principles, factors, and organization, but statements of economic facts relating to industry and commerce.

*Vocational Guidance* has been made to designate all facts concerning vocational demands and rewards relating especially to the individual, but not to apply to discussions of the place of the several vocations in the general economic scheme.

*General Government* has been considered to include all general theory of government, and such powers and functions of government as were not otherwise specifically assigned in the discussion.

*Citizenship* has been made to include technical definitions of the status and general treatment of citizenship problems and Americanization.

*Politics and Political Parties* includes the organizations and practices by which government is affected by popular will, and issues that relate to them.

*International Relations* and the other subheads are self-explanatory.

Under *Exercises* are questions for study, specifically stated, usually in the form of questions. More general topics for special reading have been omitted.

While the tabulations, I believe, represent fairly the materials embodied in the several books, an analysis of this sort can hardly represent fully the import of the books. For example, the books on vocational guidance contain a considerable percentage of economic facts; but, in my judgment, such books are not to any such extent texts in economics, since almost all the economic material is of this

single type. Similarly, by the analysis, *The Real Business of Living* contains less of ethics than of economics or government, but the ethical import is present in all of it.

The space indicated is net, deductions having been made for the blank space at the beginnings and endings of chapters. Bibliographies and reading references were also omitted. Inset illustrations are included in the space assigned, but full-page pictures were frequently omitted, although they were included when their significance was such that it could easily be done. Full-page diagrams were regularly included in the tabulations.

Mr. Brooks' tables derived from the use of the above-defined categories are as follows:

Ashley's *The New Civics*—1917

	Pages	Percentage
Sociology.....	59.0	16.9
Ethics.....	4.0	1.2
Economics.....	38.6	11.0
Vocational Guidance.....	0.0	0.0
Government		
Theory, etc.....	62.9	18.0
National.....	89.8	25.7
State and County.....	27.6	7.9
Urban.....	25.1	7.2
Citizenship.....	1.6	0.4
Politics.....	5.3	1.5
International Relations.....	3.8	1.1
Exercises.....	26.1	7.5
Geography.....	5.7	1.6
Total.....	349.5	100.0

Hughes' *Community Civics*—1917

	Pages	Percentage
Sociology.....	65.3	15.2
Ethics.....	0.0	0.0
Economics.....	77.5	18.3
Vocational Guidance.....	10.4	2.4
Government		
Theory, etc.....	13.2	3.1
National.....	86.0	20.0
State and County.....	47.4	11.0
Urban.....	76.6	17.8
Citizenship.....	10.5	2.4
Politics.....	14.0	3.2
International Relations.....	7.8	1.8
Exercises.....	21.0	4.8
Total.....	429.7	100.0



Zeigler and Jaquette's *Our Community*—1918

	Pages	Percentage
Sociology.....	42.9	23.0
Ethics.....	6.5	3.5
Economics.....	16.3	8.7
Vocational Guidance.....	0.0	0.0
Government		
Theory, etc*.....	33.6	18.0
National.....	29.2	15.7
State and County.....	12.4	6.6
Urban.....	20.1	10.8
Citizenship.....	8.8	4.7
Politics.....	0.9	0.5
International Relations.....	0.0	0.0
Exercises.....	15.9	8.5
Total.....	186.6	100.0

Tufts' *The Real Business of Living*—1917

	Pages	Percentage
Sociology.....	148.8	35.0
Ethics.....	66.8	15.7
Economics.....	80.8	19.0
Vocational Guidance.....	0.0	0.0
Government		
Theory, etc.....	75.9	17.8
National.....	11.1	2.6
State and County.....	0.0	0.0
Urban.....	13.7	3.3
Citizenship.....	0.0	0.0
Politics.....	0.0	0.0
International Relations.....	28.2	6.6
Exercises.....	0.0	0.0
Total.....	425.3	100.0

Giles' *Vocational Civics*—1919

	Pages	Percentage
Sociology.....	0.0	0.0
Ethics.....	7.3	3.2
Economics.....	14.3	6.3
Vocational Guidance.....	190.6	83.7
Government		
Theory, etc.....	3.9	1.7
National.....	0.0	0.0

\* The large percentage devoted to Theory, etc., is because much governmental service is discussed without specifying the agency by which it is performed, not because of abstract theories of government.

## THE SCHOOL REVIEW

*Giles' Vocational Civics—1919—Continued*

	Pages	Percentage
State and County.....	0.0	0.0
Urban.....	0.0	0.0
Citizenship.....	0.0	0.0
Politics.....	0.0	0.0
International Relations.....	0.0	0.0
Exercises.....	11.6	5.1
Total.....	227.7	100.0

*Towne's Social Problems—1916*

	Pages	Percentage
Sociology.....	220.6	62.1
Ethics.....	0.0	0.0
Economics.....	71.4	20.1
Vocational Guidance.....	0.0	0.0
Government		
Theory, etc.....	0.0	0.0
National.....	10.6	3.0
State and County.....	23.8	6.7
Urban.....	0.0	0.0
Citizenship.....	0.7	0.2
Politics.....	2.6	0.7
International Relations.....	0.0	0.0
Exercises.....	25.6	7.2
Total.....	355.3	100.0

*Gowin and Wheatley's Occupations—1916*

	Pages	Percentage
Sociology.....	10.5	3.4
Ethics.....	3.2	1.0
Economics.....	14.1	4.5
Vocational Guidance.....	260.1	83.4
Government		
Theory, etc.....	1.2	0.4
National.....	0.0	0.0
State and County.....	0.0	0.0
Urban.....	0.0	0.0
Citizenship.....	0.0	0.0
Politics.....	0.0	0.0
International Relations.....	0.0	0.0
Exercises.....	22.9	7.3
Total.....	312.0	100.0

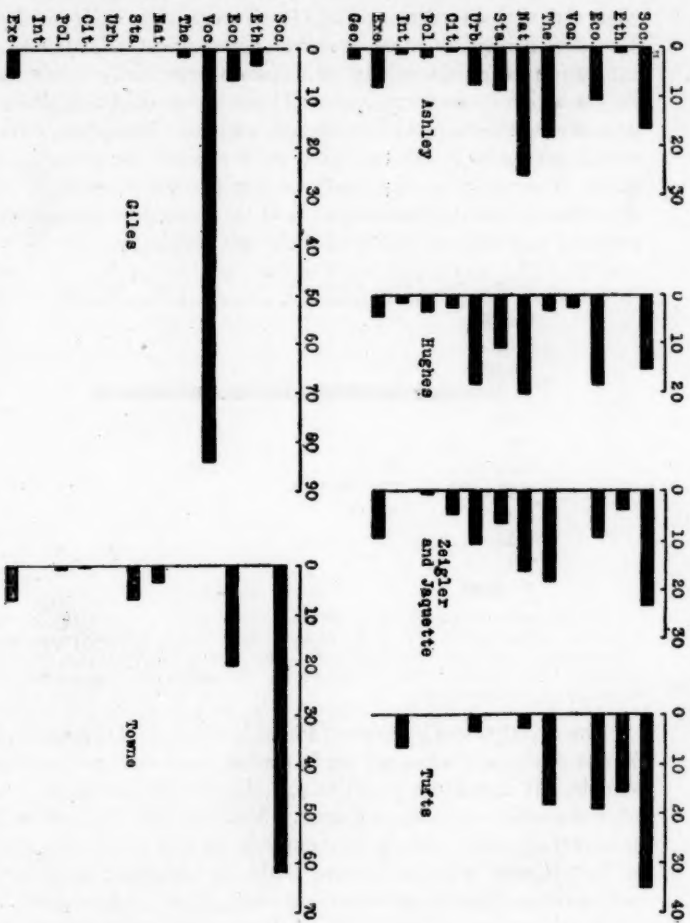


FIG. 1.—Percentage of space devoted to various subjects in certain textbooks in civics. Soc. = Sociology; Eth. = Ethics; Eco. = Economics; Voc. = Vocational Guidance; The. = Theory, etc.; Nat. = National; Sta. = State and County; Urb. = Urban; Citi. = Citizenship; Pol. = Politics; Int. = International Relations; Exe. = Exercises; Geo. = Geography.

The facts thus presented are shown graphically in Figs. 1 and 2.

The outstanding conclusion which comes from this study is that the various texts are highly divergent in their tendencies. The new subject is in no sense of the word standardized. This conclusion is reinforced by statements repeatedly made in the letters which came from users. There is repeated complaint that no one of the texts gives just what is wanted. Many users describe combinations of books and give their reasons for these in terms which show that no one book is comprehensive enough. Some users have frankly given up the use of texts except as supplementary material and rely on syllabi of their own making.

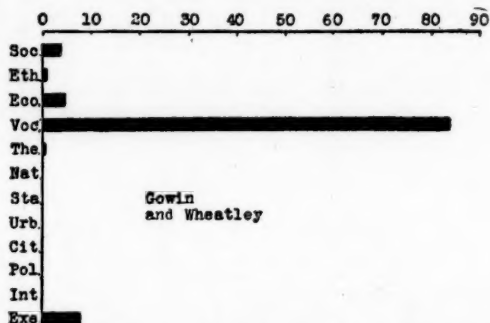


FIG. 2.—Percentage of space devoted to various subjects in Gowin and Wheatley's *Occupations*. Soc. = Sociology; Eth. = Ethics; Eco. = Economics; Voc. = Vocational Guidance; The. = Theory, etc.; Nat. = National; Sta. = State and County; Urb. = Urban; Cit. = Citizenship; Pol. = Politics; Int. = International Relations; Exe. = Exercises.

The divergencies in content found in the books become a literal babble of tongues when we get in contact with the real practices of schools. It is not too much to say that every course, as actually administered, is an eclectic course. Many of them include readings on current events. Many of them include also reports by students or by citizens who co-operate with the teachers in presenting descriptions of local industries and local social conditions.

Another diversity in practice appears in the fact that the books on which we have reports are in some cases used in the freshman year of the high school, in others in the senior year. Towne is the most striking example of distribution throughout the school. It is reported for each of the four years of the high school. Ashley

is used more commonly in the upper classes, but it is occasionally reported as used in the freshman year.

This wide spread over the years of the high school is checked in some degree by the character of the text. A number of the letters complain that the material included in one or another of the books is too difficult for students. In some cases such complaints are matched in immediately subsequent reports by the statement that pupils of lower grades get on very well with the same book.

We come as a result of our canvass to the conclusion that the material used in these courses is not standardized either in respect to the subjects appropriate to include or with respect to the difficulty of the words and sentences in which the material is set forth.

Since diversity of practice is the rule it may be well to list three sets of suggestions gleaned from the letters which will indicate, first, the methods of supplementing the texts, secondly, the disagreements with regard to emphasis on topics, and thirdly, differences with regard to the amount of work offered and its location in the curriculum.

*Supplementary devices:*

- Combination of texts.
- Syllabi prepared by the teacher.
- Current events from newspapers or magazines.
- Lectures by interested citizens.
- Written reports by students.
- Excursions to industrial plants and social and governmental centers.

*Different views about topics:*

- Wrong tendency in that the book dwells too much on community matters.
- Community problems need more emphasis.
- Background of history needed.
- Substitute for history which is too remote; for this need a teacher who can go beyond book.
- Substitute for ancient history.
- Foundations furnished by ancient history.
- Give civics as applications in connection with lessons in history.
- Set aside special hour for civics.
- Correlate closely with history.
- Correlate with home economics.
- Correlate with commercial English.
- Correlate with geography.
- More lessons wanted on actual business.
- Too much economics in this book.
- Need more formal civics.

*Statements about time:*

Important community matters can be covered in ten or twelve lessons.

Our course is six weeks.

Our course covers a semester.

Required throughout freshman year.

Under the New Jersey law sixty hours required in each of the first two years on community matters and a like time in the last two years on the problems of democracy.

We expect to have some of this work every year.

This kind of work should be much enlarged; should be required every year.

Required of Seniors.

Required of Freshman.

We are going to put in a new freshman course because so many pupils drop out and do not get our senior work.

As supplements to these lists it may be well to quote at length from one or two of the letters:

We have had a course in industrial history for non-collegiate students in the first year of senior high, in which we followed the social and industrial history of mankind from early days. It is a forty-week course, five days a week. The first month is devoted to the Eastern nations, then Greece and Rome, and the Middle Ages, following Robinson's *Outlines of European History*. By the beginning of the second semester we have finished the industrial revolution and spend the rest of the year on its results, taking up the modern problems of democracy, industry, and daily life.

---

In the first year of the high school we give one semester of civics. Last year we used Towne's *Social Problems*. The book seemed to be just what we wanted, but the children did not make the progress that they should have made. It did not seem to me that they grasped the meaning of American Citizenship in the way that they should. This may have been due to other causes than the text.

We shall offer Greek and Roman history from this time on, our reason being that we wish the children to be able to trace the development of democratic government from its earliest stages to the present time, and come to a realization of the one important fact, that the government of the United States is the highest exemplification of democracy that the world has ever seen. With this, we desire our pupils to imbibe the spirit of freedom, their obligations in its defense and promulgation, that is, freedom according to law, *not license*.

In the senior year we shall offer a critical study of the United States government—a study of the Constitution, *not about* it. It shall be our purpose to compare our government with the democracies of the past, determine why others have fallen, why ours stands, and the things that are necessary to its perpetuation.

---

It seems to me that every high school should now offer something like at least two years of work in the social sciences. No doubt community civics should be



given in the first year and a course in advanced civics offered as an elective later. Then one semester in economics and one semester in modern social problems should each be offered in the junior or senior year. I am not quite clear in my mind just how much of this work should be made required but would like to see at least three semesters of it for most students. I cannot get away from the importance of economics for practically every student in high school. Certainly the very large percentage of social and political problems today have an economic background and a semester of economics would give them little enough discussion as a basis of ideas for life in any community.

To these comments by high-school people may be added the recommendations of the committees of other associations, specifically the reports of the History Committee and the Committee of the American Sociological Society. These reports mark progress in the direction of the discussion of modern problems. Ancient history is recommended to be dropped as a required subject, though the conservatives in the historical association were strong enough to put this radical proposition over for a year. With ancient history gone, the recommendations contain suggestions about economic topics and applications of history to modern problems. Both reports favor winding up the work of each division of the school with a study of social problems. The history report argues that a historical background is essential to an understanding of modern conditions. The report of the sociologists is somewhat more favorable to the introduction of new material and is somewhat more in touch with current movements in the school in that it recognizes the junior high school as at hand.<sup>1</sup>

The foregoing statement was drafted and passed upon by the committee before the first of January. It must now be supplemented by a reference to certain new books which have just appeared representing a series of experiments in this field which will undoubtedly be of great importance in determining the future content of social studies in both elementary schools and high schools.

A book by F. T. Carlton entitled *Elementary Economics*<sup>2</sup> presents in very simple and direct terms a survey of the industrial activities of society which will be very useful both as a basis for preparation for industry and also as a means of introducing the

<sup>1</sup> The report is printed in full in this issue of the *School Review*. Special attention is called to the fourth division of the report which was presented to the high-school principals as typical of the whole report.

<sup>2</sup> FRANK TRACY CARLTON *Elementary Economics*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1920. Pp. viii+212.

general student to the social conditions that surround him. The book differs from other books that have appeared in this field in its comprehensiveness and in its simple presentation of the matters with which it deals.

A still more striking innovation appears in two books, one by Harriet E. Tuell<sup>1</sup> and the other by Emory S. Bogardus,<sup>2</sup> which deal with the facts of national life. Both of these books present the material necessary for a school course dealing with the national traits of Americans and the peoples of other countries. The book by Miss Tuell is in the form of an outline with copious references, whereas the book by Mr. Bogardus gives descriptive material based on the author's experience when he resided in a university settlement on the west side of the city of Chicago. There he found all of the nationalities of the world represented, and he describes in an interesting way their characteristics and traces these various peoples back to their European and other origins. These books are eminently the outgrowth of the interests which the war has cultivated in national life and national peculiarities. They will undoubtedly be used as a basis for Americanization courses of a broad type and they will bring to the attention of American children not only the descriptive facts with regard to other nations but also the more vivid consciousness of the characteristics of our own national life.

These books reinforce the statement which had been prepared by the committee before their appearance, that there is no standard and accepted rule for the courses which deal with social problems and that there is much need of further experimentation in this field in order to arrive at the material which is best adapted to school purposes.

This committee is convinced after a canvass of the situation that it will be necessary in order to extricate ourselves from the present chaotic treatment of social studies to take vigorous steps and to secure the co-operation of a strong group of people. It believes that the only way to bring about the desired results is to present definite demands and insist on their consideration. It therefore makes the following recommendations:

<sup>1</sup> HARRIET E. TUELL, *The Study of Nations*. *Riverside Educational Monographs*, edited by Henry Suzzallo. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1919. Pp. xvi+189. \$0.80.

<sup>2</sup> EMORY S. BOGARDUS, *Essentials of Americanization*. Los Angeles: University of Southern California Press, 1919. Pp. 303.

First, more time should be devoted than is now the case to social studies other than history. In accomplishing this, social studies should be brought into competition not alone with history. It should be the explicit understanding that the importance of social studies is to be magnified at the expense of English, mathematics, languages, and even natural science. This statement is made because the social studies are going to be cramped and distorted if history and the other social sciences have to discuss their relations not in terms of true academic co-operation but in terms of competition for the hours now supposed to belong primarily to history.

In order to detach the time factor from all other problems it should, we believe, be asserted that social studies including economic, social, and civic topics drawn from present-day life should be given a place in every student's curriculum in every year in the junior and senior high school. If such a principle is accepted, it becomes possible to work out the various relations in each year which will adjust history and English and the rest to social topics. At present social topics have no proper claim to time. They are pushed aside and we are told they will be taken care of by other subjects. What we are trying to bring about is a recognition of social studies as the major train or thread of studies, others finding relation to them as possible. In order to make immediate action possible we recommend that social studies be given the time of one-half unit a year in each of the years from the seventh grade through the twelfth.

A further broad matter which we wish to present with emphasis is the necessity of co-operation in the organization of the material for instruction in the social sciences. The field is broad and we shall develop very slowly if we depend on the purely personal initiative of authors and publishers to try out various lines of possible work. There must be co-operation in creation. When a teacher finds some topic which works well he must make his experience available for use by all. When there are criticisms of existing material which will serve to guide revision, these criticisms must be formulated in such a way as to advance the course in other centers.

The suggestion just made is not an easy one to carry into practical operation. American teachers and principals are not in the habit of working on the course of study in a creative way. There are no agencies which are able easily to collect experience and make

it available to many. Committees can indeed be appointed and can be told to find out something, but committees are like the rest of the world—slow to create.

We believe that American schools are in need of an agency which will seriously attack the problem of co-operative making of materials of instruction. The members of this association are able, if convinced, to do more than almost any other group in the American school system toward such an organization. Our recommendation is that a group of principals of high schools who will volunteer for this service undertake to do each at his own school, some definite constructive work. This shall be of three types: first, the preparation in full detail of five lessons in any aspect of social studies which appeals to him; secondly, a trial of these lessons with a view to determining whether they work and in what grade they work best; and thirdly, the exchange of such prepared and tested material with other members of the group. This third obligation involves the duplication in some form of the five lessons to be exchanged and the assumption of the small expenses for postage and correspondence necessary in effecting the exchange.

The business of the Central Committee of this Association would then become merely the business of preparing and circulating lists of volunteers, of receiving one copy of each lesson prepared for exchange, and of serving as a central repository for the experience accumulated during the experiment. It should be noted that the Central Committee would not be responsible under this arrangement for the creation or even the criticism of the material.

The Central Committee could serve another useful purpose if such a group of volunteers really began work. It could be a center to which reports might come of progress made in the direction of really introducing this kind of work into schools.

The present committee is disposed to believe that with these suggestions it has come to the end of its usefulness. If the association has volunteers and needs the services of the present committee to carry on the program outlined, the services of the committee can be had. If the association is reluctant to assume the program, the committee does not believe that it is worth while for any small group of workers to try to drive it through.

Our report is respectfully submitted, then, with the request that this committee which was appointed to report on methods of

introducing social studies be discharged and with the further request that the association consider the larger program to which we believe this report logically leads.

C. O. DAVIS  
V. K. FROULA  
W. D. LEWIS  
T. J. MCCORMACK  
F. G. PICKELL  
W. E. STEARNES  
H. V. CHURCH, *Chairman*  
C. H. JUDD, *Secretary*

## AN EXPERIMENTAL COURSE IN CURRENT EVENTS AND PROBLEMS<sup>1</sup>

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### ORIGIN

The idea of the course herein described grew in part out of the recommendations of the Committee on Social Studies of the National Education Association, but in much larger measure from independent conclusions already reached in the course of much experimentation in teaching current events in connection with the regular history courses in the University High School, University of Chicago. These experiments soon led to two convictions: (1) that to avoid leaving the results of such work fragmentary the number of topics handled in a lesson must be radically reduced, and (2) that to provide the basis for their intelligent comprehension the other social sciences must often be laid under as heavy contribution as history itself. To meet these conditions consideration was ultimately restricted to a single important question each day, making a magazine or newspaper article the point of departure, and assigning readings to various texts and library reference books to furnish the historic or economic background, or to supply the fundamental principles upon which a problem's solution must be predicated.

Work under this plan was marked by an interest and vitality which stamped it as pre-eminently worth while. In it the social sciences were patently actually accomplishing those purposes upon which their retention in the curriculum had been defended: enabling the pupil to interpret the present through the past, the pertinent portion being just freshly combed for its suggestions; cultivating a keen, intelligent interest in community, state, national, and

<sup>1</sup> This article is the outcome of a series of experiments first begun in the spring of 1917 in the University High School of the University of Chicago, in which the writer was an instructor. Though the results of his initial experiment seemed full of promise, they were withheld until two years of further experimentation in the present position have seemed to confirm the conclusions then reached.



world problems; and affording effective training through the actual investigation and judicious examination of current problems for active and wholesome civic influence.

These considerations gave rise to the question whether it was not feasible to offer to pupils, whose interests were practical rather than academic, a distinctly utilitarian course of broader viewpoint than accorded in any single branch of the social sciences, centering around the questions discussed in current newspapers and magazines and involving reference only to such materials as were necessary for their understanding, and to give such pupils some direct practical training, under guidance, in gathering materials from these sources and formulating judgments upon them.

#### PROBLEMS

Since the chief attack upon current events lessons had been based upon their fragmentary content and ephemeral nature, the chief problem set was to determine whether such a course as that planned could afford a content entitling it to co-ordinate rank with conventional academic subjects, and whether any considerable body of fairly well-organized material of recognized worth in the various social science branches would necessarily be studied in considering and interpreting current news and problems. Other questions necessarily suggested or involved were: Was it possible to keep such a course from deteriorating into mere recreation? Could substantial content be insured without imposing an intolerable burden upon the instructor? Would not the handling of controversial problems by high-school students involve acrimonious debate and resultant bitterness? Could the course avoid becoming an agency of propaganda? Would not the reference materials needed involve so large an initial expenditure as to render such work impossible in ordinary schools? What social purposes might be subserved by such a course?

#### METHOD

The course was opened to high-school students of junior or senior year, without regard to previous preparation in history. It met five times per week for fifty-minute periods. No textbook was required, but each pupil subscribed to the *Literary Digest* and the *American Review of Reviews*, and also made use of the daily newspapers in the home. Each had, also, to provide a notebook

of approved form, and to purchase outline maps from time to time as necessary.

Each pupil was required to collect in a loose-leaf notebook materials on each topic. These notes were collected and read weekly by the instructor. By this reading he was enabled not only to assure himself of the extent of the work done, but also to correct any glaring errors due to misinterpretation and carelessness. To properly distribute the work, the class was divided into five sections of equal size, and the notes of one of these sections were collected each day, according to a published schedule. By this means the number of papers to be read daily was never large, and the notes for one week only were not overly voluminous. Each topic studied was assigned, for purposes of classification, to one of the five major fields, American history, European history, civics, economics, and sociology, and, after correction, its notes were filed in the proper division of the notebook. To assure well-rounded treatments of topics, students were advised to leave space in the notes made in their daily preparations for revisions and additions growing out of class discussion, these notes being differentiated either by appropriate symbols or by being in a different colored ink or in pencil. By means of this system, which proved to impose no unusual hardship after the initial stages, the student was enabled to collect a sort of text of his own as the course progressed.

An outline for note-taking was usually included in the assignment. This was of use not only in lightening the instructor's burdens in the examination of the notes, but was deemed necessary, where notes had to be gathered from scattered materials, frequently poorly organized and diffuse, as a time-saver and attention-aimer for the pupil. It was also hoped by its use to develop a system of brief analytical notes, and to discourage the use of the voluminous and indiscriminating excerpts which are the despair of every history teacher who requires notes upon parallel readings. As the course progressed the organization of this outline was somewhat lessened as to details, and in occasional lessons omitted entirely, in order to develop the pupil's own powers of organization and judgment.

The following typical assignment will serve to show, not only the character of the ordinary outline for note-taking, but also the general method of approach to the topic.

In today's newspapers you will find articles concerning the relations between the Russian and German socialists. Any careful reading of these articles cannot fail to give rise to the question, "For what do the socialists stand, anyway?"

What do you understand by a socialist? (After several answers . . .)

You see most of us have a vague indefinite idea. When we hear the word "socialist" we immediately think of anarchists and assassins and I.W.W.'s. We *know* positively only that socialism is not in good repute in our circle. Well, if socialism is so bad, why does it spread? Ought we not to face that question? Remember, I am not saying that it is or is not bad. That is for us to investigate. For surely we, as citizens in a land where the question is becoming constantly more prominent, ought to know something about it. If it is good we should shed our prejudice. If it is bad we cannot crush it by classifying it, ignorantly, as something which it is not. If it is bad its spread is a serious menace, and it should be fought intelligently. You certainly cannot convert either the socialist or his proselyte by calling him names. If he has truth wholly on his side you cannot budge him and will not desire to; but if he is pursuing merely a half-truth you must be prepared to show him the full truth.

Be prepared tomorrow to state in a pretty clear way what you understand by socialism. Distinguish between it and communism, anarchism, and syndicalism. Then try to account for the origin of socialism. You may take the following outline for your note-taking:

1. Definition of socialism.
2. Distinction between socialism and anarchism, communism, syndicalism.
3. The history of socialism.
  - a) Effects of the Industrial Revolution.
  - b) The Utopian Socialists.
  - c) Karl Marx and modern socialism.
4. Evolutionary and revolutionary socialists.

On topic 1 see Ely, *Outlines of Economics*, pp. 515 ff.; Bullock, *Introduction to the Study of Economics*, [3rd Ed.], pp. 500-5; Burch and Nearing, *Elements of Economics*, pp. 341-46; and Bliss, *Cyclopaedia of Social Reform*. You may use the last to help you in your distinctions between socialism and other radical "isms." For topic 3 see Robinson and Beard, *Development of Modern Europe*, II, beginning on page 393. Topic 4 is touched upon in the above reference in Bullock. Be on the watch in all your reading for any further aid in making the distinction.

The nature of the notes taken, both as regards format and content, can also best be indicated by example shown on page 302.

Necessarily, variety characterized the class handling of the topics. Whether the question was primarily controversial or historical, simple or of extensive ramifications, and whether the sources available were few or many, full or meager, largely determined what treatment was possible. Formal debate, impromptu debate, informal discussion guided by a question here or there,

CIVICS  
Upson, "City-  
Manager Plan  
of Government  
for Dayton,"  
*National Municipal Review*,  
October, 1913

# THE CITY-MANAGER PLAN MARCH 12, 1917

Origin: Dayton, Ohio, after flood in 1912, first large city to try scheme. Since then idea has been claimed to have originated in various small cities, including Sumter, S. C., Staunton, Va., and Lockport, N. Y.

Plan: Organization of the city on the plan of a corporation.  
People = stockholders.  
Commissioners = directors.  
Manager = general manager.

## Form or Organization:

A. A Commission of five men elected by the people at large. Highest vote gives its possessor title of Mayor for ceremonial and ministerial purposes.

I. Commission hires manager from any place; term, during satisfactory service.

II. Commission levies taxes, sets appropriations, and passes ordinances.

III. Members subject to recall.

## B. Manager:

I. Hired from any place, not necessarily from the city or state.

II. Holds office during satisfactory service.

III. Is subject to removal by Commission.

IV. Chooses subordinates; restricted in many cases to a civil service list; power to remove such officers limited.

## V. Duties:

a) Supervision of all departmental administration.

b) Execution of laws and ordinances.

c) Recommendation of legislative measures.

d) Appointment of officers.

e) Preparation of reports.

f) Preparation of budget.

## C. Effects:

I. Business management.

II. Choice of best prepared men for job.

III. Puts premium upon preparation for city administration, since

a) Good salary paid

b) Position during good service.

c) Always some position open.

IV. Destroys spoils politics and bosses.

V. Has given rise to new college courses and a new profession.

careful developmental questioning, reports by members of the class, an informal talk or digested dictation relative to questions to which very meager reference could be accorded, as well as the ordinary topical recitation, were all laid under contribution.

#### CONTENT AND CHARACTER

The following list of topics represents the work with this course in its first semester, the spring of 1917. The list is so arranged as to show also the allotment into the five main fields, occasional topics appearing in two columns because assignment was largely a matter of arbitrary choice.

##### AMERICAN HISTORY

Disputes with Germany and Austria over neutral rights.  
Disputes with allied governments over neutral rights.  
The War of 1812.  
The Monroe Doctrine  
Arguments for and against preparedness, growing out of previous history and military policies.  
Work of the Sixty-fourth Congress.  
The Adamson Act.  
Tariff history of the United States  
Financial history of the wars of the United States.  
Acquisition of the Philippines.  
American territorial growth.  
American colonial policy.  
American relations with Japan and China.

##### EUROPEAN HISTORY

Rival blockades and submarine warfare.  
The English-Napoleonic duel.  
The Peace Movement and Hague Conferences.  
The partition and proposed restoration of Poland.  
European colonial expansion in nineteenth century.  
European policies of colonial control.  
The Russian Revolution.  
Russian history during the nineteenth century.  
The governments of England, France, and Germany.  
History of rise and spread of State Socialism.  
The Irish Question.  
Causes of the European War.  
Recent history of the Balkans.

##### CIVICS

International law.  
Treaties.  
Passports.  
Blockades.  
Strength and weaknesses.  
Declaration and conduct of war.  
Presidential control over foreign affairs.  
Congress.  
Composition.  
Powers.

##### ECONOMICS

Money.  
Character.  
Qualities.  
Uses.  
Paper money.  
Prices.  
High cost of living explanations.  
Food control and regulation.  
Financial terms and markets.  
Taxation.  
Principles.

Work.	Methods.
Municipal governments and their reform.	Criticisms of present method.
Territorial governments and policies.	Single tax and suggested reforms.
The Supreme Court.	Labor organizations and problems.
Taxation, national and local.	The tariff.
The United States Army.	Thrift.
Municipal markets.	Municipal ownership.
The school board and its problems.	
Grand and petit juries and their work.	SOCIOLOGY
Trial procedure, civil and criminal.	Woman suffrage.
Crime and its punishment.	Immigration.
The Conservation Movement.	Labor organizations.
Regulation of public utilities.	Socialism and allied radical movements.
Local governments of Cook County and Chicago.	Prohibition.
	The causes of crime.
	Health conservation.
	The slums.

Further light not only upon the character and content of the course, but also upon its spirit, may be shown by the final examination questions here given.

UNIVERSITY HIGH SCHOOL  
Second semester, 1916-17  
CURRENT EVENTS AND PROBLEMS

*Answer seven:*

- I. In tabular form show the chief causes of the European War.
- II. Tabulate the chief arguments for and against: the city-manager plan of city government; the restriction of immigration.
- III. Why would you (or would you not) vote in favor of: (a) national prohibition? (b) the issuance of paper money? (c) the adoption of socialism? (d) woman suffrage?
- IV. Discuss the social value of (a) labor unions, (b) international law.
- V. Briefly comment upon five: the Partition of Poland; the Boxer Uprising; the Monroe Doctrine; the Adamson Act; the Irish Question; the Conservation Movement.
- VI. A. Briefly discuss the powers of the president of the United States over (1) legislation, (2) foreign affairs.  
B. Compare his powers with those of the king of England.
- VII. Explain or define: bond, "bull," U. S. 4<sup>s</sup>, par, watered stock, assessed valuation, personality, "melon," preferred stock, "futures."
- VIII. A. "The present tax laws place the burden of taxation on three classes: the ignorant, the dependent, and the honest." Criticise the above statement.  
B. What are some proposed remedies?



It is also believed that from the standpoint of content this course does not suffer in comparison with the usual standard high-school courses in accepted subjects. Sufficient materials are presented in each field to allow of an organization lesson in that group to develop their proper interrelation, and thus further guard against leaving the work fragmentary and unorganized.

It is, of course, freely conceded that none of the fields has been thoroughly covered; further, that the treatment of many of the topics has been a mere skimming. Two considerations are relied upon as a defense. A detailed and complete study of some of the topics would necessitate a discriminating analysis of most complex and voluminous data, a task for which high-school students are unprepared by temperament, lack of breadth of knowledge, and immaturity of judgment. Certain fundamentals, however, they can with clarity grasp, if properly presented and interpreted. Were all such pupils to pursue college courses of such breadth as to insure consideration of all such vital questions, it would doubtless be preferable to have their study come at a later time. One has always to remember, however, that as regards the majority of pupils it is a choice, not of whether a topic can be best considered now or later, but of whether it shall be considered now or not at all.

The other consideration is that experience tends to establish the fact that the residuum from even the best organized and most fully developed courses is likely to be, in most pupils' cases, more or less disjointed and fragmentary. What has been etched deeply by interest and seeming availability sticks; the rest is effaced. Most details go. It has seemed to the writer, who has had no narrow experience in teaching the conventional subjects of the high-school curriculum, that the final residuum from this course, despite its unexhaustive nature and its partially fragmentary organization, is above the average of that from such courses.

With normal-school classes the number of topics covered has never been quite so extensive, due in part to the quarter system, and in part to the more intensive study of some topics rendered possible by the greater maturity and experience of the pupils.

#### RESULTS

As a means of testing student reactions toward the course, the following questionnaire was assigned near the close of the term. To ensure perfect frankness pupils were urged to copy one another's

exercises; and to assure careful consideration the exercise was given in lieu of a regular assignment.

- I. Do you consider this course as valuable as the other courses you are taking? Give reasons.
- II. Does this course seem to afford as much scholastic training as your other courses?
- III. How does the time required for preparation in this course compare with that demanded by your other courses?
- IV. Does the information acquired seem more disconnected than that secured in other courses?
- V. Do you think the information secured in this course likely to be as long retained as that from other courses?
- VI. To what extent, if any, has the course been of social value to you?
- VII. Has the course resulted in your reading, voluntarily, more widely upon current topics?
- VIII. What do you consider the weak features of this course?
- IX. What do you consider its strong points?
- X. How, in your opinion, may the course be improved?

The results, so far as they are reducible to tabulation, are as follows:

- I. As valuable, 9; more valuable, 6; less valuable, 1.
- II. Yes, 14; no, 2.
- III. Much greater, 3; greater, 12; varies, 1.
- IV. Yes, 13; about the same, 2; no, 1.
- V. Not as long, 2; as long, 4; longer, 10.
- VII. Yes, 15; no effect, 1.

Below are given brief summaries of student viewpoint on each question, except III, which needs no comment.

I. The value was given as its practical nature; its treating problems of vital, immediate interest; the development of power to cope with questions not directly answered in textbooks; the cultivation of discrimination in note-taking; teaching how to "find what one wants through references"; the broadening effects of studying "all sides of many different problems."

II. Its scholastic training was held to be as great, but of a more practical nature, teaching directly how to meet present problems—"a training of the world rather than of books."

IV. While agreeing that information seemed more disconnected, most students explained that this applied to the relation between topics, not to the handling of particular problems; and one thought

it due to "being so accustomed to follow a set method in some textbook or other."

V. Freshness, vivid impressions due to strong current interest, immediate use of material outside of school because of its social availability, and the greater necessity of really *thinking* through the subject in the absence of a textbook, were relied upon to assure longer retention in memory.

VI. The social assets developed are noted as: ability to be more entertaining, because possessing information interesting to others; confidence and poise, because one "knows a lot more about these questions than the average person," and can express intelligent opinions; the comforting possession of a "widely varied stock of sensible topics of conversation;" enjoyment of the conversation of older people—"table talk no longer a bore;" and tolerance gained through widened viewpoint.

VII. The wider reading is accounted for not only by an aroused interest, but also by having "learned how to *interpret* the material."

VIII. Weak points most noted are: course too brief, 5; time taken in preparation, 3; too brief treatment of questions, 3; overlapping with other courses, 3; time required by notebooks, 2.

IX. The strong points were thought to be: current interest, 7; social value, 7; training in a note system, 5; method in acquiring information, 4; teaching independence of judgment, 4; and preparation for better citizenship, 4.

X. The only suggestion ventured was that the course be extended to a full year.

Similar questionnaires given normal-school pupils have brought results substantially identical. They, however, insist that such a course is so necessary to prepare teachers to fulfill the demands made upon them in rural communities for enlightenment on current questions, that its pursuit should not be left subject to individual whim under an elective system.

#### OBSERVATIONS

Teachers or administrators desiring to undertake such a course may find interest in the following conclusions resulting from three years of practical handling.

1. No course affords greater adaptability; adjustment to length of term, the capacities of different sections, and various degrees

of student maturity, are readily made. However, being without a textbook and standardized content, the course cannot teach itself. The teacher's resourcefulness, "pep," and personality thus become of more than usual significance in securing results.

2. The course does not require the extensive duplication of library texts which might at first seem necessary. Encyclopaedias, newspaper almanacs, and magazines, whether current or bound, help out immensely. By widening the number of references most pupils are enabled to secure access to considerable material. Students can usually arrange to borrow history and civics texts to secure the required information from pupils in those classes. Therefore, a well-stocked library, while reducing the teacher's effort and enhancing the value of the course, is not an absolute *sine qua non*. If a number of sections were run simultaneously, a considerable initial expenditure would be necessary, for unless sufficient references are available to assure each pupil's having access to some, it is impossible to prevent loafing by the less zealous students.

3. The investigations of such a class may result in accumulating valuable equipment for use in regular sections in the social sciences. Examples are charts showing variations in immigration, maps of the new European political divisions, etc.

4. The course need not be propagandistic. The teacher who is not able and willing to interpose on what seems the weaker side of a controversial subject with questions which will draw out new materials until both sides have been adequately presented may have trouble. The writer's experience in directing practice teachers in handling current events in high-school classes persuades him that any teacher of reasonable tact and the will to be judiciously fair may establish a position above the suspicion of partisanship.

5. The course is not one for an overburdened teacher, or for one without reasonably wide education in the social sciences. Preparation inevitably is heavier than for subjects already well organized in a textbook, while wide reading is necessary to assure the selection of the most valuable materials available.

6. Owing to the necessity for much discussion and developmental work, sections of from 15-25 pupils are most profitable. Smaller sections miss the stimulation of varied viewpoints, while inadequate participation by all pupils handicaps larger ones.

7. Though it was originally given in the eleventh and twelfth grades, the writer believes this course might with proper adaptation and modifications be successfully presented in any grade indicated by local conditions as more desirable. The more thorough study rendered possible through added maturity favors its relegation to the upper grades. On the other hand, these mature students often lament that their introduction to these topics in a compelling manner has come too late to permit of their taking other social science courses for which their interest and desire have been aroused.

## Educational Writings

### I. REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

*Lipps' Daily Lesson Plan Book for Vocational Instructors.*<sup>1</sup>—The vocational instructor looking for a convenient guide for the analysis of his lesson problems should find this book helpful. The sheets are planned in blank form so that the instructor may record under the proper headings the date, the subject, and the subdivision of the subject which is being taken care of by the lesson assignment, the purpose of the lesson, the grouping of subject-matter with methods of presentation, and the reference readings on the subject-matter. In all, space is provided for the planning of 222 lessons. Several type or sample plans are worked out in detail for lessons in the household arts, agriculture, and farm mechanics.

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*Teaching by Projects.*<sup>2</sup>—The foregoing is the title of another late book on the subject of project teaching. There is set forth in the book an earnest and able plea for the reorganization of the subject-matter in our school curricula. The author quite correctly shows that our tendency is now and has been for a long time to present the material in the several subjects in a loose, hodge-podge, encyclopedic fashion, and that this procedure can lead only to waste and inefficient results. His suggested remedy lies in organizing the subject-matter around large, meaningful topics or large units of study. One feels on reading the book that the author has made his case quite clear, but there is also the feeling that such a treatment of subject-matter is not necessarily "project teaching" and that there is something more necessary to remedy the evils of school-teaching than a logical organization of the subject-matter and a thorough mastery of the same by the teacher. The psychological arrangement according to the way a child learns a subject should be as important a factor in the organization of subject-matter as the nature of the subject itself.

In discussing project teaching, much depends upon the definition of project. In this text we find the term used synonymously with "large units of study." Although the author recognizes that project may mean an activity on the part of the child which he undertakes "at his own behest when he is pressed by a felt

<sup>1</sup> OSCAR H. LIPPS, *Daily Lesson Plan Book for Vocational Instructors*. Milwaukee, Wisconsin: Bruce Publishing Co., 1919. Pp. 65. \$0.80.

<sup>2</sup> CHARLES A. McMURRY, *Teaching by Projects*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1920. Pp. vii+257. \$1.32.



desire or need," yet he nowhere suggests or admits that this is the fundamental characteristic of project teaching. In fact he does show clearly that the term means to him no more and no less than what he has formerly set before the teachers of our country under the caption "Type Studies and Lesson Plans." Worthy and helpful as these are, they do not mean the same as "project," for the foremost thought of today implies that the child learns best by his own mental responses, reactions, and behavior. This means that the child to a very large degree must do most of the acting himself. It means that he must use his bodily activities as well as his mental activities to solve his problems and do his thinking. The reflex of such behavior upon mental growth is greater than we have been able to estimate as yet. At no point in this text do we find anything to lead one to teach in any different style than that where the pupil is assigned so much to read and study, and then expected to come to class where he will be questioned on how much he has been able to remember. This is not project teaching in the latest and best sense of the term. Projects may be mental, most assuredly, but teaching that holds the child in his seat and appeals to his mind alone and never calls upon him to do something with his hands, or body, or go out and investigate something for himself, will inevitably fall into the old-time rut of memoriter work.

Therefore, while we recognize that there is a vast deal of good material in this book, yet we feel that it is beside the point so far as project teaching is concerned in that the main issue set forth by the author is that of organization of subject-matter around large units of study and not how pupils can be kept busy doing things because they want to. It seems to us that the importance which the author has attached to "Type Studies" has impelled him to take his old "Type Studies" wine and pour it into the new "Project Study" bottle, and we are not assured that he has recognized the importance in education of the doctrine of self-activity. We feel that the reader of this book will tend to magnify logical organization of subject-matter and overlook the importance of the psychological organization, that he will be led to memoriter teaching instead of allowing the child to do a great deal of acting on his own accord, and that he will be influenced to make the child master the organization as laid down instead of allowing the pupil to think his own way through the problem placed before him.

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*Teaching home economics.*—Under the title, *Teaching Home Economics*,<sup>1</sup> the authors have presented the first book upon methods in that subject. Part I, eighty pages in length, is devoted to a long discussion of the economic and social status of women and includes a sketch of the history of the home-economics movement. Part II deals with the various schemes of organization of courses of study; forty pages are given over to the different forms of organization in elementary schools, twice as much space to suggestions for various types of high schools, and an equal amount to rural schools and social units. The suggestions for lesson plans given in Part III are of value to the inexperienced student and to the teacher who has neglected new educational theory. The authors, however,

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<sup>1</sup> ANNA M. COOLEY and others, *Teaching Home Economics*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1919. Pp. xii+555. \$1.80.

have merely indicated the need of scientific diagnosis of the results and difficulties of teaching, one of the essential features of the growing science of methodology. The courses of studies included in the one hundred pages of the addenda illustrate the various types of courses which are being offered and the factors which motivate them.

In urging that all work, in whatever kind of school, should be the outgrowth of some definite need felt by the children or as the execution of some project of value in the lives of the children, the authors strike the keynote of the book. Given the teacher with experience and great initiative, there would be found here inspiration for unusual work. But to the student without experience and creative ability to translate into concrete situations the "common information, experience, and development necessary to intelligent living in any walk or calling in life," it can be of little guidance. Many quotations from educational writings which illustrate pertinent points are presented, but the failure to reconcile the different points of view of the various authors would be very confusing to the young teacher or supervisor. One finishes the reading of the book with the realization that innumerable statements as to existing conditions have been given, but a feeling akin to bewilderment is not cleared away by any definite conclusion as to wise selection of material, clear emphasis on abilities to be developed, or teaching methods to be used.

*A new method of approach to modern history.*—In *School and Society*, January 8, 1916, there appeared an article by Clarence D. Kingsley, high-school inspector of Massachusetts, on "The Study of Nations: Its Possibilities as a Social Study in High Schools." The general scheme proposed by Mr. Kingsley in this article was later worked out in outline form by Miss Harriet Tuell, of the Somerville High School, Massachusetts, and published in *The History Teachers' Magazine*, October, 1917, under the title, "The Study of Nations—An Experiment." Those who remember these two articles will welcome a complete working out of the idea in book form.<sup>1</sup>

Miss Tuell has organized her discussion around the following general topics: the study of nations, European nations, Oriental nations, and a nation in the making. Two topics, the method of approach and the fruits of experience, are discussed under the first general topic. The arguments in favor of the approach advocated by the author stated briefly are: it forces the teacher to begin the course at a point of contact with the pupil's immediate interest; it opens the pupil's mind to his immediate use for history; it relieves the instructor of the need to make history attractive by artificial stimulus; it substitutes the order of procedure which is now followed by the adult world for that followed by the professional historian only; and finally, the approach is logical as well as chronological.

The general plan advocated by the author is to begin a modern history course with a survey of the modern nations as they exist at the time the study is made. After this survey has been made, the part of the country under consideration is

<sup>1</sup> HARRIET E. TUELL, *The Study of Nations—An Experiment in Social Education*. *Riverside Educational Monographs*, edited by Henry Suzzallo. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1919. Pp. xvi+189. \$0.80.

examined in order to explain its present-day institutions and ideals. The nations suggested for such a treatment are France, England, Germany, Russia, Italy, the Austro-Hungarian Empire, Turkey and the Balkan States, China, Japan, and the Philippine Islands as an example of a nation in the making. For each of these nations the book furnishes an outline to be followed, references to be read, and a general discussion of ways and means of carrying out the work.

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*An introduction to the study of economics and sociology.*—A number of individuals are interested just now in securing more attention to the social studies other than history in the junior and senior high schools. Evidence of this interest is found in the fact that at the present time there are five committees of national scope working on the problem. One of the difficulties these workers are finding is the scarcity of suitable material. Because of this fact, they will be interested in a recent publication in the field.<sup>1</sup>

The author of this book has done more than simply produce another book on elementary economics for use in high schools. He has in reality broken away from the traditional discussion of consumption, production, exchange, and distribution, and organized his discussion in quite a different manner from that followed by traditional texts in the field. In Part I such topics as getting a living under various conditions and industrial progress in the United States are discussed. Part II includes a somewhat theoretical discussion of production of commodities, wants and value, wealth and income, and competition and money. The major part of the book, however, is included in Part III in which the author discusses present-day economic problems, some of which are money and banking, forms of business organization, railway transportation, municipal monopolies, the labor force, labor organizations, labor legislation, methods of paying for labor, agriculture economics, insurance, marketing, public expenditures and public debts, taxation, industrial unrest, and social and industrial betterment. The discussions throughout are brief and to the point. At the end of each chapter topics for discussion are listed. There are no lists of reference books. This seems unfortunate since the book itself does not contain enough material for even a half-year course in the subject.

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*A new book on Americanization.*—There are many persons who are at this time interested in the problems relative to Americanization. Professor Bogardus meets these interests in a book<sup>2</sup> which deals with such general topics as Americanization and American traits, the native-born and American traits, the foreign-born and American traits, and methods of Americanization. There is also an appendix of sixty-seven pages which contains much concrete material. For example, Appendix A is made up of a group of brief original statements of American ideals by representative American spokesmen. A statement of American ideals in 1620, in 1757, in 1775, in 1776, in 1787, in 1796, in 1801, in 1823, in 1830, etc.,

<sup>1</sup> FRANK TRACY CARLTON, *Elementary Economics*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1920. Pp. viii+212.

<sup>2</sup> EMORY S. BOGARDUS, *Essentials of Americanization*. Los Angeles: University of Southern California Press, 1919. Pp. 303.

appears in this material. These statements are intended for the convenience of speakers, teachers, and students who desire concrete material along this line. Appendix C contains a series of problems in Americanization based on each chapter in the book, and Appendix D, a long list of selected readings topically arranged. On the whole, the book is a valuable contribution to a subject in which there is much interest at the present time.

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*A new upper-elementary grade or junior high-school history.*—In all probability the histories of the United States published during the next five years will be unlike those written during the past ten years. The World War and its outcomes have demonstrated that our United States history texts must be written from a new viewpoint. A book purporting to have this new viewpoint has recently appeared.<sup>1</sup> Some of the new things which the author claims that his book does are: connects the story of our national life with the rest of the world; treats the Revolutionary War as one phase of a larger revolution against kingly usurpation, and the War of 1812 as an incident in the Napoleonic Wars; emphasizes the foreign relations of the United States, and gives much attention to social and economic history.

There is nothing new in the author's general organization, sequence of topics, pedagogical aids, or material included in the appendix. Viewed from all these angles, the book looks like many others now in the field. The chronological approach has been rigidly followed in general organization and in the organization of each part. The pedagogical aids placed at the end of each chapter consist of references for the teacher, references for the pupil, and special topics for the teacher and the pupil. In the appendix are included the Declaration of Independence, the Constitution of the United States, and two tables, one of the states and one of the presidents and vice-presidents.

On the whole, the book is attractive in appearance, contains many well-selected illustrations and maps, gives a full and fair treatment of the topics discussed, and places due emphasis on our history since 1865. It deserves to meet with immediate success.

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*A new organization of botanical material.*—A small book which organizes the materials of high-school botany with reference to the life of the plant rather than to its structure as is usually done has just come from the press.<sup>2</sup> Another feature of the publication is its large use of the problem method of presentation. In glancing through its pages one finds each laboratory exercise presented as a definite problem to be solved by the pupil with the minimum assistance. As a whole, the problems which the students are asked to solve relate to situations that actually arise in experience. Strong emphasis is placed on field trips, not of the pointless kind, but real laboratory studies out-of-doors. While the book can be used with any textbook in botany, it is primarily designed to accompany Bergen and Caldwell's *Introduction to Botany and Practical Botany*.

<sup>1</sup> WILLIAM BACKUS GUITTEAU, *Our United States: A History*. Chicago: Silver, Burdett & Co., 1919. Pp. xii+637+xiv.

<sup>2</sup> WILLIAM LEWIS EIKENBERRY, *Problems in Botany*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1919. Pp. xii+145. \$0.72.

*A history of American literature with a new purpose.*—Most histories of American literature are largely compendious summaries of bibliographical and historical facts. A recent publication<sup>1</sup> in this field, however, attempts quite another thing. In place of the traditional summary the author has formulated a clear account of the men and movements most important in the intellectual history of America. In doing this Professor Boynton has traced the growth of our national spirit from its faint beginnings in pre-Revolutionary days through all the changing ideals of patriotism, marking the works of our poets, novelists, essayists, and dramatists. The style throughout is marked with a crispness and vivacity that are missing in too many textbooks in the same field. The author's scientific knowledge and scholarship are winningly displayed on every page of his book. Needless to say that these characteristics will go a long way toward fixing the facts in the minds of its readers.

The book abounds in what might be termed teaching aids. To each chapter are appended topics and problems for study, summaries of each man's output, available editions, and critical material—the latter for supplementary use and in no case as a substitute for first-hand study. There are maps, chronological charts, and an appendix containing a brief but exact characterization of those American periodicals which have done most service in stimulating American authorship.

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*A revised edition of an old book.*—Users of Professor Bronson's *American Literature*<sup>2</sup> will be glad to know that it has been revised and enlarged. In the revision the author has brought the earlier chapters down to date and has added a large section on the literature since 1900. The new matter contains illuminating characterizations and a just evaluation of scores of books and authors of present interest. There has also been added to the appendix of the volume about forty pages from the less accessible but still significant authors. The bibliography has been thoroughly revised and the work is supplied with a detailed index.

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*The Great War.*—Teachers of history in junior and senior high schools are spending more time on contemporary history than they did prior to 1917. One handicap in their efforts to do this is the scarcity of material adapted to the age and mental capacity of their students. For this reason they always welcome new material dealing with the Great War. Two books<sup>3</sup> which bid fair to be helpful in teaching the war have just come to the attention of the writer. To have the story of the war as it appears in Professor Usher's book will be of great aid to the busy teacher. Furthermore, if sufficient time is devoted to the subject to justify the purchase of a text by each member of the class, the book will answer this purpose also. For this latter purpose the story is admirably presented, each

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<sup>1</sup> PERCY H. BOYNTON, *A History of American Literature*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1919. Pp. v+513. \$2.25.

<sup>2</sup> WALTER C. BRONSON, *A Short History of American Literature*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1900, 1919. Pp. ix+490. \$1.48.

<sup>3</sup> ROLAND G. USHER, *The Story of the Great War*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1919. Pp. xvii+350. \$2.75. CORA W. ROWELL, *Leaders of the Great War*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1919. Pp. vii+336.

section standing out rather conspicuously. Book I treats the causes of the war; Book II, the war in 1914; Book III, the war in 1915; Book IV, the war in 1916; Book V, the war in 1917; and Book VI, the war in 1918. While this strict chronological approach may not be the ideal one, it gives the teacher an organization which is at least easy to manage. Other valuable teaching aids to be found in the book are the illustrations which have been selected and prepared with the utmost care. The author's own comment regarding them will suggest their value: "I have devoted almost as much research and thought to the selection and preparation of the illustrations and maps as to the text itself. They represent a comprehensive survey of French, Italian, and German as well as of British and American illustrated periodicals and official photographs. They will, I hope, repay study. They tell much that the reader will want to know, which I felt could be better told in this way than by direct description. So far as I know, this book is the first to contain any number of illustrations from German sources. I have particularly attempted to show how the various nations sought to rouse patriotism and stimulate endeavor by graphic methods. Many of the illustrations are therefore in themselves historical material, and show better than mere description can the spiritual attitude toward the war of the various combatants."

*Leaders of the Great War* contains short biographies of Marshals Joffre, Petain, Foch, and Haig, Lord Kitchener, Admirals Beatty and Sims, David Lloyd George, Georges Clemenceau, General Pershing, and President Wilson. What the author had in mind when writing these biographies is expressed in the preface as follows: "Although the main purpose has been to show the human side of each man, and to emphasize through anecdote and stories of early life the development of the personal qualities that have helped him to succeed, there is included a full account of his achievements in the war. Taken all together, the sketches cover the principal battles of the western front and the work of the British and American navies. The characters of the political leaders have in themselves afforded an opportunity to stress the ideals of democracy."

Besides the very readable accounts of the services the foregoing leaders rendered in winning the war, the book contains additional references at the close of each biography and a four-page glossary at the end. This latter aid is almost indispensable in a book dealing with the war on account of the great number of names it must contain with which both the teacher and the pupil will need help in order to pronounce correctly.

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*Report of the Commissioner of Education.*<sup>1</sup>—The report of the Commissioner of Education for the 1918-19 school year will constitute an important document in the annals of American education for several reasons. In the first place, it reflects the readiness with which a democratic school system can make adjustments to new social and economic conditions. Higher education, for example, was using its equipment and organization in the training of a student army. Moreover, higher education soon found itself carrying on higher educational

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<sup>1</sup> *Report of the Commissioner of Education for the Year Ended June 30, 1919.* Washington: Government Printing Office, 1919. Pp. xvi+226.



work among the American Expeditionary Forces. Likewise, vocational, commercial, industrial, and agricultural education were using their equipment and organization to meet the demands created by the World War.

In the second place, the report reflects the problems which turn up in a democratic school system as a result of social and economic changes. Thus, the problems of teacher-training and teacher-salary constitute two of the most serious educational problems for educational legislation to dispose of.

Again, the report indicates how the pressure of a national emergency reveals the weak spots in our democratic school system. For example, the wide prevalence of venereal disease among young men examined for service was indicative of a serious shortcoming in health education. Likewise, the national emergency produced by the World War revealed shortcomings in our educational efforts toward Americanization.

The report is divided into three parts. Part I deals with different aspects of education in the United States. The following are among the topics treated: Americanization, educational hygiene, teacher-training, teachers' organization, educational legislation, and vocational education. Part II deals with education in certain foreign countries. Part III describes the activities of the Bureau of Education. Among the activities treated are: Americanization, civic education, community organization, home education, and educational extension.

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*Annual Report of Federal Board for Vocational Education.*<sup>1</sup>—The third annual report of the Federal Board for Vocational Education, created by federal enactment in 1917, has recently been issued. The report appears in two volumes. A good notion of the nature of the report can be gained by reference to an abridged table of contents. Volume I—"Vocational Education." Part I—Progress and Needs of Vocational Education: national needs; agricultural education; home economics education; trade and industrial education; present status of state and industrial education for girls and women; promotional work needed to develop trade and industrial education; commercial education; employment management; publications since June 30, 1918. Part II—Summary of Progress by States. Part III—Statistical Report. Volume II—"Vocational Rehabilitation": vocational rehabilitation of disabled soldiers; awarding training with full support; utilization of existing educational agencies; training in home communities; placement training; organization; work accomplished; statistical tables.

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*The report of a Bureau of Educational Research.*<sup>2</sup>—The research movement in education has made great headway within the last decade. We have come more and more to study educational problems through scientific research. The interest in the research movement in education is in part reflected in the increasing number of bureaus of educational research which have been and are being established in connection with city and state school systems and schools of education. In

<sup>1</sup> *Third Annual Report of the Federal Board for Vocational Education.* Volume I: "Vocational Education," pp. 256; Volume II: "Vocational Rehabilitation," pp. 56. Washington: Federal Board for Vocational Education, 1919.

<sup>2</sup> "First Annual Report, Bureau of Educational Research," *University of Illinois Bulletin*, Vol. XVII, No. 9. Urbana: University of Illinois, 1919. Pp. 78. \$0.25.

July, 1918, the Bureau of Educational Research of the University of Illinois was created. The first annual report of this foundation has recently appeared. This publication is very much worth while from the standpoint of its account of the activities which have been instituted by the bureau. The reader will get some notion of the nature of the work of the bureau by noting in the bulletin the activities which have been undertaken and those which are in prospect. A partial list of the projects which are described in the publication is given below.

I. Projects undertaken:

1. Promotion studies
2. Rate of silent reading
3. Derivation of tests
4. Memory work in the grades
5. Intelligence testing
6. Theses of graduate students
7. Type lessons

II. Proposed projects:

1. Standardization of educational tests
2. Collection of information about the usefulness of tests
3. Derivation of new test material
4. Determination of validity and reliability of educational tests
5. Analysis of arithmetical abilities and study of pupils' errors
6. Efficiency of the departmental teaching of mathematics
7. The supply of trained teachers and the demand for them
8. The selection of textbooks
9. The extension of Monroe's *Silent Reading Test III* for use with college students
10. The *Journal of Educational Research*

Chapters vi and vii are devoted to a very complete classification of standardized tests available for use in elementary and high schools. The publication also classifies the tests which can be secured through the Bureau of Educational Research, University of Illinois.

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*A study of the commercial curriculum.*—The changed commercial and economic relations between America and the world, produced by the World War have created new curriculum problems in commercial education. The Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, appointed by the National Education Association a few years ago, undertook among other tasks to make a study of the curriculum problems of commercial education. The results of this study have recently been issued.<sup>1</sup> The value of the contributions in this field which the report contains will be recognized immediately by the thoughtful student of education in view of our changed world relations and in view of the 500,000 boys and girls who are pursuing commercial courses in our public secondary schools. In view of these considerations the bulletin should be widely read.

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<sup>1</sup> "Business Education in Secondary Schools," *Bureau of Education Bulletin No. 55, 1919*. Washington: Department of the Interior. Pp. 68.

## II. CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED DURING THE PAST MONTH

### A. GENERAL EDUCATIONAL METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY, AND PRACTICE

- BRYCE, CATHERINE T. *The Light: An Educational Pageant*. Boston: Atlantic Monthly Press, 1920.
- CLOW, FREDERICK R. *Principles of Sociology with Educational Applications. Brief Course Series in Education*, edited by Paul Monroe. New York: Macmillan Co., 1920. Pp. xiv+436. \$1.80.
- "First Annual Report Bureau of Educational Research," *University of Illinois Bulletin*, Vol. XVII, No. 9. Urbana: University of Illinois, 1919. Pp. 78. \$0.25.
- HANIFAN, L. J. *The Community Center. Teacher Training Series*, edited by W. W. Charters. Boston: Silver, Burdett & Co., 1920. Pp. ix+214.
- MUNROE, JAMES PHINNEY. *The Human Factor in Education*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1920. Pp. ix+317. \$1.60.
- SHARP, DALLAS LORE. *Patrons of Democracy*. Boston: Atlantic Monthly Press, 1920. Pp. vii+57. \$0.80.
- TUELL, HARRIET E. *The Study of Nations. Riverside Educational Monographs*, edited by Henry Suzzallo. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1919. Pp. xvi+189. \$0.80.

### B. BOOKS PRIMARILY FOR ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

- DEMING, ALHAMBRA G. *Nonsense Rhymes and Animal Stories*. Chicago: Beckley-Cardy Co., 1919. Pp. 62. \$0.50.
- FLORA, MARGARET. *Animal-Land Children*. Chicago: Beckley-Cardy Co., 1919. Pp. 128. \$0.55.
- HILL, RUTH. *John Joseph Pershing. Little Folks' Plays of American Heroes*. Boston: Richard G. Badger, 1919. Pp. 76. \$0.75.
- LUTHY, CHAS. T. *Scientific Handwriting*. Peoria, Illinois: Chas. T. Luthy, 1918. Pp. xiv+233.
- MARMER, ARCHIE. *Makers of America. Little Folks' Plays of American Heroes*. Boston: Richard G. Badger, 1919. Pp. 63. \$0.75.
- MINCKLEY, LOREN STILES. *Americanization Through Education*. Frontenac, Kansas: Loren Stiles Minckley, Superintendent of Schools, 1917. Pp. 304.
- SMITH, LAURA ROUNTREE. *The Like-To-Do Stories*. Chicago: Beckley-Cardy Co., 1920. Pp. 136. \$0.55.

### C. BOOKS PRIMARILY FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

- DICKENS, CHARLES. *Barnaby Rudge*. Edited by Leon H. Vincent. New York: Gregg Publishing Co., 1919. Pp. 881. \$1.00.
- EIKENBERRY, W. L. *Problems in Botany*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1919. Pp. xii+145. \$0.72.
- FORD, WALTER BURTON, and AMMERMAN, CHARLES. *Second Course in Algebra*.

- New York: Macmillan Co., 1920. Pp. ix+299. \$1.28.
- GALDÓS, PÉREZ. *Doña Perfecta*. Introduction and notes by A. R. Marsh. Vocabulary by Steven T. Byington. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1919. Pp. xiii+363. \$1.12.
- GUGLE, MARIE. *Modern Junior Mathematics. Book One*, pp. ix+222, \$0.80; *Book Two*, pp. xiv+239, \$0.90. New York: Gregg Publishing Co., 1920.
- HAGEDORN, HERMANN. *You Are the Hope of the World*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1920. Pp. 108. \$0.60.
- HOPKINS, FLORENCE M. *Guides for the Use of Reference Books*. Detroit, Michigan: The Willard Co., 479 Sixth Street, 1919. \$0.25 per pamphlet; 11 pamphlets in series.
- HUXLEY, THOMAS HENRY. *Autobiography and Essays*. Edited by Brander Matthews. New York: Gregg Publishing Co., 1919. Pp. 276. \$0.67.
- MICHAUD, RÉGIS. *Scènes et Récits de la Grande Guerre*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1920. Pp. xi+187. \$0.80.
- SWAN, NORMA LIPPINCOTT. *Word Study for High Schools*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1920. Pp. xi+142. \$0.72.

D. PUBLICATIONS OF THE UNITED STATES BUREAU OF EDUCATION  
AND SIMILAR MATERIAL IN PAMPHLET FORM

Recent issues of the Bureau of Education:

- Bulletin No. 50, 1919—*The Public School System of Memphis, Tennessee*, Parts I, IV, and VI.
- Bulletin No. 54, 1919—*The Schools of Austria-Hungary*.
- Bulletin No. 55, 1919—*Business Education in Secondary Schools*.
- Bulletin No. 57, 1919—*Educational Conditions in Japan*.
- Bulletin No. 58, 1919—*Commercial Engineering*.
- Bulletin No. 59, 1919—*Some Phases of Educational Progress in Latin America*.
- Bulletin No. 64, 1919—*Library Activities, 1916-1918*.
- Bulletin No. 66, 1919—*Training Teachers of Agriculture*.
- Report of the Commissioner of Education for the Year Ended June 30, 1919*. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1919. Pp. xvi+226.

E. MISCELLANEOUS PUBLICATIONS

- Addresses delivered at the National Social Unit Conference, October 23-25, 1919. New York: National Social Unit Organization.
- Annual Report of the Board of Regents of the Smithsonian Institution for the Year Ending June 30, 1917*. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1919. Pp. xii+674.
- ASLAN, KEVORK. *Armenia and the Armenians*. Translated by Pierre Crabitès. New York: Macmillan Co., 1920. Pp. xxix+138.
- FROST, HELEN, and WARDLAW, CHARLES DIGBY. *Basket Ball and Indoor Baseball for Women*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1920. Pp. xvii+154. \$1.50.
- WRIGHT, HENRY PARKS. *The Young Man and Teaching. Vocational Series*, edited by E. Hershey Sneath. New York: Macmillan Co., 1920. Pp. xiv+211. \$1.50.

